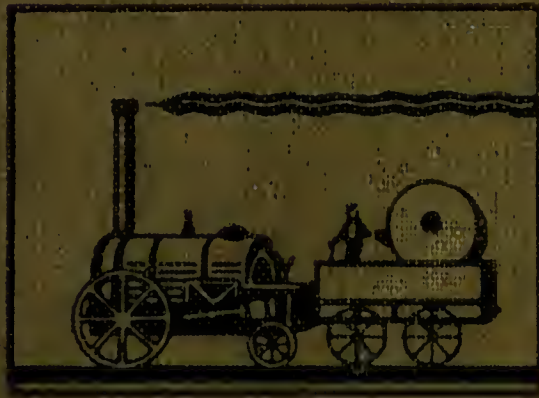


BLACKIE'S JUNIOR HISTORIES
BOOK FOUR

THE GROWTH OF
MODERN
BRITAIN



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—1450—

Turks capture Constantinople 1453



—1475—

Caxton's Prince

—1500—

*Henry VII 1485
Diaz sails to
Columbus disc*

—1525—

*Henry VIII 1509
Magellan's sh*

—1550—

*Edward VI 1547-1553
Mary 1553 - 1558
Elizabeth 1558 - 1603*

—1575—

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Moreton Old Hall, an Elizabethan House

Drake sails round the world 1577
Virginia founded by Raleigh 1584

Westminster Hall

Parliament House



—1600—

James I - 1603 - 1625

—1625—

Charles I 1625-1649



Old St. Pauls

—1650—

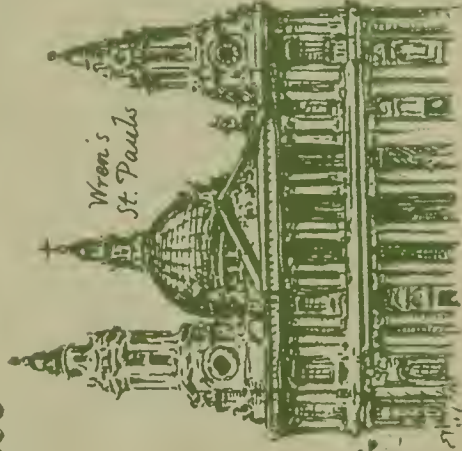
The Commonwealth 1649-1660



Mace of
House of Commons

—1675—

James II 1685 - 1688



Wren's
St. Pauls

—1700—

William III & Mary 1689-1694
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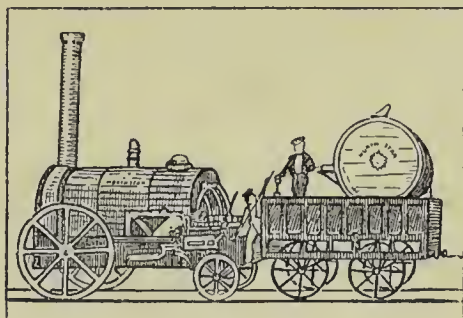
BOOK IV

THE GROWTH OF
MODERN BRITAIN

BY

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Lecturer in History in the University of Glasgow



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PREFACE

These Junior histories are written with a double end in view.

First, the matter has been selected with a view to its appeal to children between the ages of 7 and 11. The stories combine the romance of individual lives with the romance of everyday things, both of which come within the lives and experiences of the children. Through these it is possible to create an attitude of mind towards the present and a background of ideas of the past, which have some claim to be regarded as historical.

Secondly, the more formal studies of the child after reaching the age of 11 have been borne in mind, and the course is intended to equip him, so far as he can be equipped before reaching that age, for this later work.

A new feature has been added in the form of notes on the illustrations. This will, no doubt, be welcomed, for one of the chief difficulties which is encountered in using illustrations is to know the extent to which one can depend upon their accuracy.

Books I and II contain selections from the whole range of history, exclusive of Bible stories which can be best told from the Bible, down to the beginnings of Modern Times. Books III and IV then take up the thread of British history from its beginning to the present day.



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NOTES ON THE ILLUSTRATIONS

The Great Gatehouse, Hampton Court Palace (frontispiece). From a photograph. The West Front and Great Gatehouse were built by Cardinal Wolsey in 1515 and surrendered by him to Henry VIII in 1526. The palace remained a royal residence until the time of George III.

A Garden (p. 17). Modelled on an illumination made about 1490 and preserved in the British Museum. Ladies spent much of their leisure time in their gardens, talking, singing, or gathering flowers. Roses, lilies, gilliflowers, marigolds, lavender, rosemary, and herbs for use in cooking and medicine were grown.

Printing (p. 19). Modelled on an engraving by Johannes Stradanus in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. Stradanus was born in 1523 at Bruges where Caxton's *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*, the earliest specimen of typography in the English language, was printed, probably in 1474.

Caxton's Advertisement (p. 20). Printed in 1477 advertising his *Ordinale secundum usum Sarum*. Only two known copies exist—one, from which this reproduction was made, is in the Bodleian Library, Oxford. The advertisement reads: "If it plesse any man spirituel or temporel to bye any pyes of two and thre comemoracios of salisbury use enpryntid after the forme of this preset lettre whiche ben wel and truly correct, late hym come to Westmanster in to the almonesrye at the reed pale and he shal have them good chepe. Supplico stet aedula."

Lady playing Musical Instrument (p. 23). She is playing the Clavicytherium. The fingers strike on balanced levers which operate mechanism which plucks the strings. Its compass was about the same as that of the human voice. The early prototype of the piano was the harpsichord or clavicymbal, as it was called at the time. The instrument in the illustration is modelled on a photograph, lent by Mr. Phillip James of the Victoria and Albert Museum, of one in the Donaldson Museum, Royal College of Music, London.

St. Peter's (p. 26). From a photograph. The foundation stone was laid in 1506. Both Raphael and Michael Angelo were at one time entrusted with the supervision of the work. Renaissance architecture reached its highest pitch of grandeur in the dome, the work of Michael Angelo.

Erasmus (p. 29). From a miniature by Holbein at Basle.

Sir Thomas More (p. 31). A direct reproduction from a photograph of Holbein's drawing. The names and ages of each member of the family are given on the original, but have been omitted here. More himself is 76. Margaret Roper, his favourite daughter, is the second from the right.

Henry VIII (p. 34). From a painting by Holbein.

The "Santa Maria" (p. 47). From the model in the Science Museum, London. The hull is carvel built with round bows and round stern, and on the sides it is strengthened externally with horizontal wales and vertical skids.

Cabot (p. 48). After an engraving of a picture which was at Whitehall in the time of James I.

Mary Queen of Scots (p. 53). From a painting after Francois Clouet. The original drawing, from which this painting was made, is in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. She is in white (royal mourning) for her youthful husband, François II of France.

Elizabethan Ship (p. 55). Modelled on a contemporary woodcut, on the model of the *Revenge* in the possession of the Department of Overseas Trade, and on the model in the Science Museum, London. The netting in the waist is a defence against boarders. Vessels of this period were steered by a whipstaff consisting of a pivoted handle, the lower end of which engaged with the end of the tiller. The *Revenge* carried 46 guns and had a ships' company of 250 (140 marines, 30 gunners, 80 soldiers). The hull was painted in bright colours.

Queen Elizabeth (p. 56). From the painting attributed to Marc Gheeraerts in the National Portrait Gallery, London.

An English Soldier (p. 59). From an engraving in J. de Gheyn's "Maniement d'Armes" engraved in 1608. He is a Harquebusier armed with a Harquebus (a matchlock gun) and carries a bullet bag, a flask of powder, a touch box, a rapier, and a dagger. He wears a heavy shirt of mail. A cock was fixed to the gun to hold the match which was brought down to the priming in the flash pan by a trigger. It could fire about 30 shots an hour.

London in the Seventeenth Century (pp. 62 and 63). From the copy of the Panorama of London engraved by Visscher in 1616.

Westminster (p. 67). From the British Museum copy of Holler's engraving made in 1647. Westminster Hall with the square towers each side can be seen on the left. There are a number of sheds against the chief entrance. The open space in front was called New Palace Yard. A conduit can be seen at the right in the yard. The top of Westminster Abbey is seen in the left background. The fourth side of the yard opened on to the river.

Dress of Time of Charles I (p. 72). The ruff has given place to a large lace-edged collar and cuffs. Two pairs of stockings were often worn—the outer pair shorter than the inner and edged with lace which showed above the top of the wide boots. The lady's skirt is caught back to show the embroidered petticoat. Masks were worn in public by the court ladies.

Charles I (p. 73). From the painting by Van Dyck in the Dresden Gallery. It is said that Lely did some work on this portrait.

Archbishop Laud, previously Bishop of London (p. 76). From Van Dyck's portrait in the National Portrait Gallery, London.

- A Cavalier** (p. 80). Modelled on contemporary illustrations and descriptions.
- A Roundhead** (p. 81). From a portrait of Colonel John Lilburne in Planché's *Cyclopædia of Costume*. He is cropped and shorn as close as possible.
- Westminster Hall** (p. 85). From a drawing by Sydney R. Jones.
- Cromwell** (p. 89). From a portrait by Samuel Cooper (1609-72) in Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge.
- Warship** (p. 91). From photographs lent by Mr. E. Laird Clowes of the Science Museum, London, of a contemporary model of the *Naseby*, which was launched in 1656 and was used to convey Charles II back to England at the Restoration.
- Old St. Paul's** (p. 92). From a contemporary engraving. The spire was destroyed earlier.
- Costume** (p. 95). The lady wears full sleeves, open in front and caught together with jewelled clasps. Her hair is arranged in masses of ringlets. The dress of the man forecasts the beginning of the coat and waistcoat. Breeches were edged with a deep lace frill. Men carried muffs in the street. Wigs, long and curled, were seen on every man.
- Jacobean Room** (p. 98). Drawn by Sydney R. Jones from existing examples of panelling, fireplace, and furniture. From left to right can be seen a chest, a settle, a table, an armchair, and a court cupboard. All the wood is oak and the ceiling is modelled in plaster.
- St. Paul's** (p. 99). From a photograph.
- The Fire of London** (pp. 100 and 101). From Holler's engraving in the British Museum. It shows the city as it appeared from the opposite Southwark side at the time of the fire.
- Pilgrim** (p. 103). Copied from an illustration on the 13th edition of *Pilgrim's Progress* published in 1692.
- A Kitchen** (p. 106). A reconstruction drawing by Sydney R. Jones. Contemporary furnishings and implements have been copied. There is the open fireplace with iron chimney crane and pot, fire-dogs, and dogs for the spits turned by a mechanically worked jack. Spare spits are in the rack over the fireplace. A joint and poultry are trussed on to spits, and a shallow tray is under to catch the dripping. Baking was done in the brick oven shown at the left, where the peel or baker's shovel can be seen.
- John Smith** (p. 114). From the portrait engraved on the map of New England in his *Generall Historie of Virginia* published in 1624. It bears the title "Admiral of New England".
- Log Palisade** (p. 115). By permission of the *Illustrated London News*.
- George Washington** (p. 121). From the painting by G. Stuart in Boston Art Gallery.
- A French Canadian** (p. 122). From Bacqueville de la Potherie, *Histoire de l'Amérique Septentrionale*, 1722. An inscription on the original says "the man is going over the snow to war".

- General Wolfe** (p. 125). Based on a reproduction drawn from a contemporary sketch.
- Wall Street** (p. 126). The view on the left is from a contemporary picture reproduced in the *Illustrated London News*. That on the right is from a photograph looking up to Trinity Church. In front of the Sub-Treasury building is a statue of Washington.
- United States Flag** (p. 130). The Act of Congress of June, 1777, gave the United States its national flag. Stars were added from time to time, and it received its finishing touches in 1912, with the emplacement of the two stars representing Arizona and New Mexico.
- The Mogul Reviewing** (p. 133). From a painting by Tilly Kettle exhibited at the Royal Academy of 1781. This artist painted in the East Indies with such success as to command a fortune. The picture shows Shah Allum, Mogul of Hindustan, reviewing the East India Company's troops.
- The Island of Tahiti** (p. 137). Modelled on a drawing made by a member of Cook's crew. These canoes do not seem to have gone to sea single, but two were fastened together, side by side at a distance of about 3 feet, by strong poles of wood laid across and lashed to the gunwales. They were propelled by oars, though sometimes a sail was raised.
- The "Victory"** (p. 139). From the 50-foot model constructed in 1933 by permission of the Southsea Publicity Office. *Victory* was a first-rate ship of 104 guns built in 1759-65, she was commissioned in 1778, and finished her sea-going service in 1812. Her complement was 850 men.
- Nelson** (p. 143). From the painting by L. F. Abbott in the National Portrait Gallery, London.
- Stage Coach at a Toll-gate** (p. 149). Modelled on contemporary pictures.
- "Comet"** (p. 153). Drawn from a model in the McLean Museum, Greenock, and an old painting in the Victoria and Albert Museum, London. There were at first two paddles on each side of the boat, but later only one on each side was fitted. She was launched in 1812 and sailed between Greenock and Glasgow. Length overall, 50 ft.; breadth 11 ft. She was wrecked in 1820.
- "Puffing Billy"** (p. 154). From the original in the Science Museum, London. Constructed at Wylan Colliery in 1813 by William Hedley. It hauled about 50 tons at a speed of 5 miles an hour. The tender carried a water tank and coal box. It was at work in 1862.
- A Passenger Coach** (p. 155). From a photograph in the possession of the London and North Eastern Railway. It must be remembered as the first public passenger coach, and is now in the Science Museum, London. It ran daily on the Stockton and Darlington Railway, the fare charged for the journey between the two towns being one shilling.
- Early Railway Trains** (pp. 156 and 157). From contemporary pictures.

An Election Scene (p. 160). Copied from the third of a series of caricatures by Hogarth depicting an eighteenth-century election.

Houses of Parliament (p. 164). From a contemporary print.

Coal-mining (p. 166). Modelled on a woodcut, published in 1816, of Harrington Mill Pit Colliery. The whim-gin for raising the coal is from an illustration in Pyne's *Microcosm* published between 1803 and 1806. It was worked by a horse and one appears in the 1816 woodcut. But the horse was soon superseded by the engine housed on the right. In the foreground a collier is screening the coal.

A Peeler (p. 169). From a photograph taken in 1866. He wears the chimney-pot hat and carries a truncheon.

Ploughing (p. 171). From a painting made in 1854 by J. F. Herring and now in the Victoria and Albert Museum, London. The plough is a wooden one.

A Cotton Field (p. 172). A drawing based on contemporary pictures.

Lincoln's Log Cabin (p. 175). The cabin is preserved in a memorial building at Hodgenville, Kentucky, U.S.A. The artist has placed it in an appropriate setting.

Lincoln (p. 177). From a lithograph of a photograph by Brady.

Street Scene (p. 179). Modelled on a picture painted in 1825 by G. Scharf and now in the British Museum. In the left foreground is a coach employed on local service through Camberwell and Walworth. In front of that is a coach emerging from the old Golden Cross Hotel. Notice the milk girl with her pannier. Northumberland House with its famous lion is in the background.

Motoring in 1888 (p. 181). This shows the car built in 1888 by Carl Benz. It is now in the Science Museum, London, and is probably the first petrol car brought to England. It has wooden wheels. The rear driving wheels have iron tyres, and the steering wheel originally had a solid rubber tyre. Horse-power about 1·5. The car runs at 10 and 5 miles an hour on two speeds, and is still in working order.

A Balloon (p. 183). From an engraving in the Bibliothèque National, Paris. This shows the hot-air balloon made by the brothers Montgolfier ascending in 1783. The aperture or lower part of the balloon had a wicker gallery in the centre of which a brazier was supported by chains. The fire was maintained during the ascent by using straw, wood, &c. The rarefaction of heated air caused the balloon to rise.

The First Aeroplane to Fly the Channel (p. 184). From a photograph of Louis Blériot and his monoplane after the flight, July, 1909.

NOTE TO THE READER

In Book III we learned something about Britain at the time when the Romans invaded and conquered it. Then we read of the invasions by fierce tribes from lands across the North Sea—Saxons, Angles, and Danes. All these tribes stayed and settled here, and from the Angles we got the name England. Lastly, another lot of people, the Normans, who were descended from the same tribe as the Danes, came and conquered the country. Afterwards we saw how, gradually, these various peoples settled down together and became one nation. We noticed also that a mixed language, English, which all could understand, grew up at the same time.

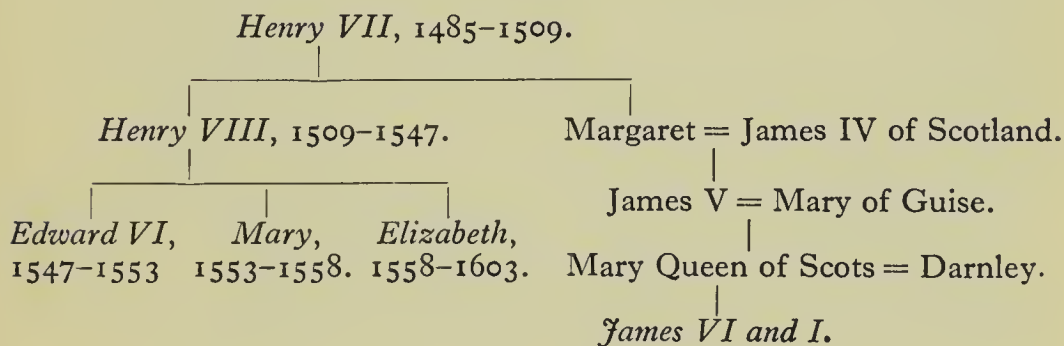
In Book IV we shall find how Great Britain became one, and how Parliament increased its importance. We shall see how the British rose to be a great seafaring people, trading in many parts of the world, and how they explored, settled, and sometimes conquered other lands. Some of these lands were called colonies. After many years some of the earlier and larger colonies were able to manage their own affairs. Thus there grew up independent English-speaking nations in various lands across the oceans. We shall learn also about some of the things which have made Britain one of the greatest manufacturing and trading countries of the world.

At this stage of our study in history we must begin to notice more particularly the time at which events happen. To help in this matter, dates are more frequently given in the present volume than in previous ones, and the names of rulers with the period of rule for each are also included.

BOOK IV

The Tudors

Henry VII, 1485-1509 Edward VI, 1547-1553
Henry VIII, 1509-1547 Mary, 1553-1558
Elizabeth, 1558-1603



I. THE FIRST TWO TUDOR KINGS

Henry VII

Henry Tudor became King Henry VII of England after the battle of Bosworth in the year 1485. His enemy Richard III had been defeated and killed, and Henry was crowned king on the battlefield. He was a clever man, and he determined to be a strong king. There had been fighting and trouble in England for many years, and Henry saw that what the country needed most of all was peace. Many people agreed with him. They were tired of fighting and disorder;

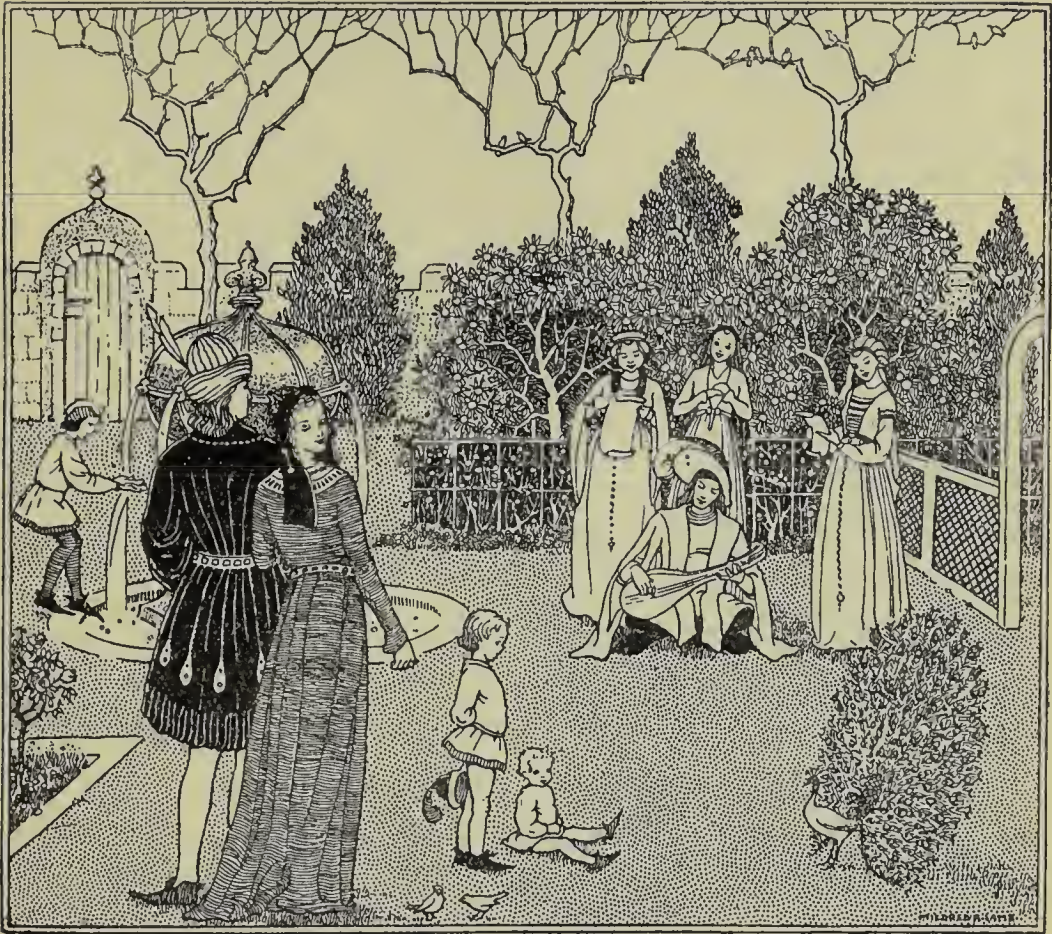
they wanted to attend to their farming or their business; and they were willing to make Henry a strong king if he would bring back peace and order.

Still, it was not easy for Henry to make himself a strong ruler. One of his chief difficulties was the power of the great lords. The king could not be strong and the laws would not be obeyed if the great lords were too powerful; and at the beginning of Henry's reign some of them were still very powerful.

Sometimes a great lord had a large number of friends and servants who wore his "livery". This was a kind of uniform, and those who wore it were ready to serve their lord and fight for him. This meant that the great lords really had armies of their own. They could defy the king and disobey the laws. If one of their friends had a dispute with someone in the law courts they could bring their "liveried" men and frighten the judges into doing what they wanted.

Henry decided that this kind of thing must stop, and a law was passed which said that a lord could keep only a few men in livery. The great lords did not like this law, but at last they had to give way and obey the king. Most people saw that Henry was right.

There is a story which shows that Henry was very firm in dealing with the powerful lords. Once when he was going to visit the Earl of Oxford the Earl received him with a great many men in livery. The Earl wanted to show how important he was; he expected Henry would be impressed by being given such a splendid welcome. But Henry said, "I thank you for your good cheer, my lord, but I may not endure to have my



A garden in the days of Henry VII

laws broken in my sight;" and the Earl had to pay a large fine for having had so many men in livery. By being firm in this way Henry made himself a powerful king, and saw that the laws were obeyed.

William Caxton

When Henry VII was king many people in England were reading printed books for the first time, for it was only shortly before this that it became possible to print books. Before the days of printing, books were written

by hand. This took a long time, and when the writer had finished his work there was, of course, only the one copy of the book. This meant that books were few and costly.

Then people found out how to print books. First of all it was discovered that words or pictures could be cut out on blocks of wood, and if they were covered with ink and the wood was pressed against paper, the paper would show the marks of the words or pictures. They could be *printed* on the paper. Then something better still was discovered. People found that it was not necessary to cut out whole blocks of words which could never be used again except for printing the same words and letters in the same order. For now printing machines were invented in which each letter, made of wood or metal, was separate and could be moved by itself. Thus letters could be placed in any order to make any word the printer might want.

The great benefit of printing was that though it took a long time to arrange the cut-out letters in the proper order, once they were arranged they could be used to print, not one, but many copies on paper.

The first person who printed books in England was William Caxton. Caxton was an Englishman but he spent much of his life abroad. He was a merchant, and when he was a young man he went abroad to carry on his business in Flanders. Just at this time people were beginning to print books in Germany and Flanders. Caxton became interested in the new invention and learned how to print himself. He decided to come back to England and to start printing books in



INSIDE A PRINTER'S WORKSHOP AT THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

If it plese any man spirituel or temporel to bye any
 pces of two and thre comemoraciōs of Salisburi use
 enpryntid after the forme of this present lettre whiche
 ben wel and truly correct, late hym come to westmo-
 nester in to the almonestrye at the reed pale and he shal
 haue them good chepe .'. .

Supplico stet ædula

An advertisement printed by Caxton in 1477. (Given in modern spelling below.)

If it please any man spiritual or temporal to buy any pieces of two and three commemorations of Salisbury Use imprinted after the form of this present letter which are well and truly correct let him come to Westminster into the Almonry at the red barrier and he shall have them good bargain.

Supplico stet ædula (I pray that the house may stand)

his own country, and a few years before Henry VII became king Caxton came home again and set up the first printing press in England.

The invention of printing made some great changes. There were now far more books for people to read. Books were not so rare and expensive. More people had a chance of reading and owning books, and more people learned to read. Not only were there far more books, but there were far more books in English. Before printing had begun, the books written by hand were mostly in Latin, for all educated people understood Latin. But as more Englishmen began to read and possess books of their own, more books were written in their own language. Caxton printed books of English poetry, and he printed also in English many foreign books which he himself had translated.

The printing of books made changes in the speaking and writing of English and helped to form the modern English language which we speak to-day. At the time when printing was invented people in one district of England used different spelling and, sometimes, different words from those in another district. They spoke English, but they spoke different kinds of English in different places. These different kinds of English were called "dialects". But when many books were being printed it was seen that it would be better for all books to be printed in one dialect. The printers began to use the dialect of the people round about London and the king's court, and this dialect soon became the language of all people who could read and write.

The Amusements of Henry VIII

When Henry VII died in 1509 his son Henry VIII who became king was not quite eighteen years of age. Henry VII had been respected because he had done a great deal of good for the country, but people had not liked him much. He had been reserved and mean. Henry VIII was quite different. He was noisy and cheerful. He was full of energy and interested in a great many different things. He seemed to be friendly with everyone, and at first he was very much liked.

When Henry VIII was a young man he was fond of sport and games. He liked hawking and hunting. He was so keen on riding after deer and so energetic that his horses were tired long before he was. Sometimes he rode as many as ten horses on one day's

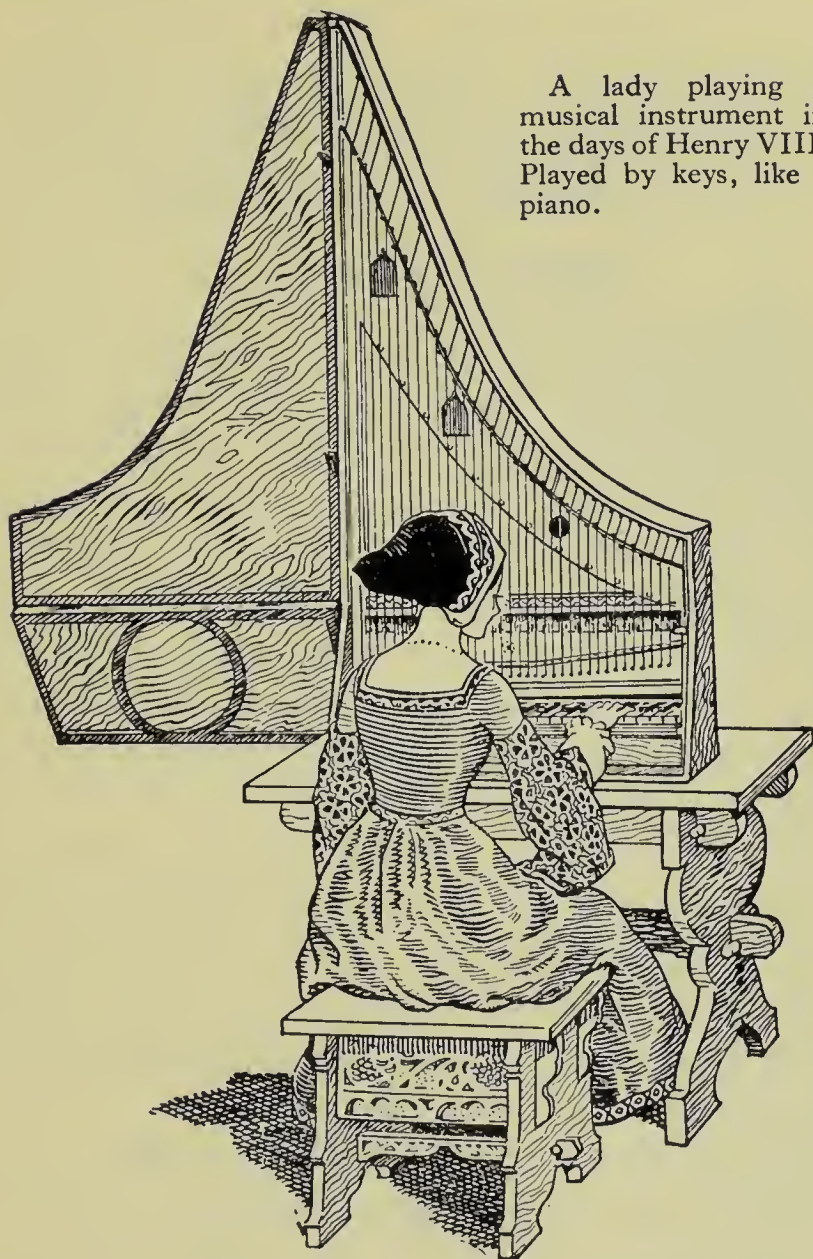
hunting. At this time the fiercer beasts—the wolves and wild boars—which had once lived in England had all been destroyed, though there were still wolves in Scotland and Ireland.

In Henry's time many kinds of games were played, but they were not always the same games as those of to-day. There was a kind of football, but it had very few rules and no definite number of players. It was often played on the streets, and many people disapproved of it because it was so violent. Someone said it was not a game but a "friendly kind of fight". But it was not always "friendly". Sometimes it turned into a real fight and people were killed. One of Henry's favourite games was tennis. It was not the same as the lawn tennis of to-day. It was played in a special kind of enclosed court.

One sport which was enjoyed by everyone, rich and poor alike, was archery. There were special places for practising it which were called "butts". The archers shot their arrows at targets and had competitions with one another. Henry himself was a very good shot.

Another of Henry's interests was music. He played the organ, the harp, and the flute. He even composed music himself. Some people thought his musical compositions were very poor, though they did not like to say so. Henry was not the kind of person anyone would dare quarrel with or contradict. As he grew older he became very fierce and terrifying.

Henry VIII was not only an athlete and a musician. He was interested in study, and he spoke several



A lady playing a musical instrument in the days of Henry VIII. Played by keys, like a piano.

languages. When he became king scholars were glad, for they thought they had a king like themselves. At this time people were becoming very interested in the language and the writings of the ancient Greeks and the ancient Romans. It was now easier for people to study since there were far more books.

2. GREEK SCHOLARS AND FAMOUS PAINTERS

Discovering Greece

To understand what happened to the Greek and Latin languages we must go back many centuries. Long ago during the centuries before the birth of Christ the Greeks had been the most important people in Europe. Their sculptors had made beautiful statues: their architects had built beautiful temples. Greek writers had written poems of adventures, plays, and histories. And, later, the books of the New Testament which tell about the life of Christ had been written in the Greek language.

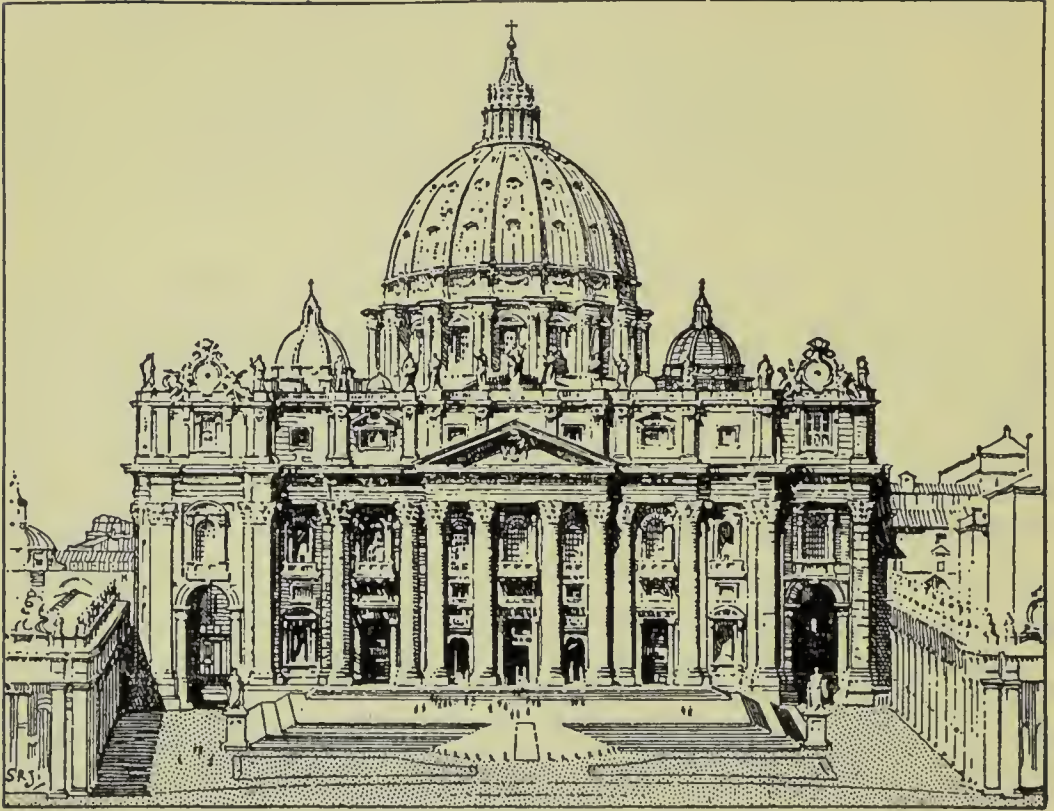
After the Greeks, the Romans became the greatest people in the world and the lands of the Greeks became part of the Roman Empire. Latin was the language of the Romans, though Greek was still spoken and written in those parts of the Empire where the Greeks had once ruled.

Then the rule of the Romans, like the rule of the Greeks, came to an end. More than a thousand years before the time of Henry VII the Roman Empire had begun to break up. As the centuries passed new nations, like England, France, Spain, grew up in the lands that had once been Roman. These new peoples spoke their own languages, and they lost interest in the writings of the Romans and the Greeks. The Latin language was not forgotten, for the services in all the

churches were in Latin and all scholars could read Latin. But nearly everywhere Greek was forgotten. Even scholars read the New Testament in a Latin translation, not in the original Greek in which it had been written.

During those years there was one place where Greek had been kept alive. This was the country round the city of Constantinople. This country had once been ruled by the Greeks, then it had been ruled by the Romans, and when the Romans had lost their power over Europe it was all that remained of the Roman Empire. It was far away and people in the west of Europe knew little about it. This land was called the Eastern or Byzantine Empire: sometimes it was called the Roman Empire; but it was very small and it was really more Greek than Roman. In Constantinople there were still some Greek scholars who treasured the writings and the statues of the ancient Greeks. Elsewhere the Greek language was forgotten for many hundreds of years.

Not long before Henry VII became king of England a change had taken place. It began in Italy. The Italians wanted to know more about the people who had once lived in Rome when Rome had ruled most of the civilized world known to the people of Europe. Then they wanted to know more about the ancient Greeks too. Just at this time the little Eastern Empire was in great danger. It was being attacked by the Turks, who were conquering lands round the east of the Mediterranean. This made the people of Constantinople more friendly with the Italians, for they were both



One of the beautiful buildings built by the Italians after they had discovered the art of ancient Greece

Christian, and all Christians were afraid of the Turks, who were Moslems or Mohammedans. Italians visited Constantinople. Greek scholars came to Italy. Soon the Italians were getting to know more and more, not only about the ancient Romans, but about the ancient Greeks. And at last in the year 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople. The Eastern Empire was at an end. Greek scholars could live there no longer: they had to come farther west—to Italy.

The more the Italians learned from the Greek scholars about the ancient Greeks, the more they wanted to be like them. They wanted to do what the

ancient Greeks had done. Above all they wanted to make beautiful things. Soon in every big town in Italy there were people making statues and buildings and pictures. They wanted, too, to read and study the wonderful books the Greeks had written long ago. When people are very interested in something, or when they discover something wonderful, they become very excited. The Italians became very excited, for they had discovered the beautiful things of ancient Greece.

Leonardo da Vinci

One of the most famous Italians of this time was Leonardo da Vinci. He had many interests. Perhaps there is no one in the world's history who was so good at doing so many different kinds of things. He painted pictures and made statues. He was an architect and an engineer, for he made plans for building forts and making canals. He knew how to make cannons. Sometimes he amused himself by inventing mechanical toys, for he was interested in machinery. He said that some day people would use ships driven by steam, and that they would make machines which could fly. He even tried to make a flying machine. At that time these things seemed to most people quite impossible, but we know now that Leonardo was right.

Above all, Leonardo was a painter. His most famous picture, "The Last Supper", is in Milan. It was painted on the wall of the dining-hall in a building belonging to the friars. When he was an old man he went to France to become the French king's

painter and architect. The French king thought no man had so much knowledge as Leonardo.

So it was not only in Italy that people were excited about art and the ancient Greeks. The excitement came to France: then it came to England and Germany. Englishmen visited Italy and came back having learned about the Greeks and having learned to admire beautiful works of art.

Two Foreigners in England

One of the great scholars of this time was Erasmus. He was a Dutchman and for a time he lived in a monastery in Holland. But he did not like the ways of the other monks. He thought they were lazy. So he left the monastery. He was very interested in Greek books but he had very little money. He once said: "I have given up my whole soul to Greek learning and as soon as I get any money I shall buy Greek books—and then I shall buy some clothes." But by teaching pupils he was able to make enough money to live and to buy books. An Englishman who had been one of his pupils invited him to visit England. So Erasmus came to this country and lived for some time at Oxford. There he became friendly with an English scholar named Colet who at this time was teaching students at Oxford. Later Colet became the Dean of St. Paul's in London. Erasmus went abroad again, but he made other visits to this country where he had many friends.

These scholars like Erasmus and Colet thought there was something wrong with the Church and the

clergy. They thought that many of the monks and priests were not doing their work properly. Erasmus made fun of them for being lazy.

Some of the scholars wanted to make changes in the Church services, for they thought it would be better to have the prayers in Church said in



Erasmus

English instead of in Latin. Erasmus, too, did not like the Latin translation of the New Testament which was then in use. He did not think it was a good translation of the Greek. So he wrote another Latin one, but he said he hoped that some day there would be a good translation of the New Testament into English which all English people would be able to read.

Another famous foreigner who came to England in Henry VIII's reign was Hans Holbein, the painter. He was a German, but the later part of his life was spent in England, for Henry made him painter at the court. The fierce and powerful king admired Holbein's painting very much. "I can make a lord of anyone," Henry said, "but I cannot make a Holbein." Holbein painted portraits of Henry and of many important people in England, including Erasmus.

3. SIR THOMAS MORE

Sir Thomas More was one of the most famous men of Henry VIII's reign. He was a lawyer and lived in Chelsea. Chelsea is now part of London, but at that time London was very much smaller than it is to-day and Chelsea was a village out in the country. Erasmus sometimes lived with More in Chelsea, for he knew him very well.

More had a strange household. He and his family were fond of animals and they kept several different kinds of curious pets. They had rabbits, a fox, a ferret, a weasel, and a monkey. The monkey became quite famous, for it was painted by a great painter and described by a great writer. Holbein once painted More's family and the monkey was put in the picture too. And Erasmus wrote about it. Once when Erasmus was visiting Sir Thomas, the weasel tried to get into the rabbit-hutch, but the monkey stopped it and saved the rabbits from danger. Erasmus thought this was clever of the monkey and he told the story in one of his books.

Like other scholars of his time, More was fond of the books of the ancient Greeks. He was specially interested in one great Greek writer, named Plato, who wrote a book to describe what he thought would be the best kind of country for people to live in. More imitated Plato, and he too wrote a book about an imaginary land where everyone was well educated and where no one was wealthier than anyone else. He



Sir Thomas More and his family. More is the third figure from the left
(This is an exact copy of a drawing made by Hans Holbein)

called this land "Utopia", a name which comes from a Greek word meaning "nowhere". He wrote this book to show that he thought his own country, England, could be much better than it was.

In Utopia when people broke the law they were not punished so severely as in England. In England, in More's day, people were often put to death for stealing a few shillings. It was thought that laws and punishments must be very severe, because there were so many robbers. When anyone was travelling he had to carry weapons to protect himself against robbers. There were no proper policemen, and robbers were not easily caught. When they were caught they were dealt with very severely.

Sir Thomas More was worried about the distress in England. There were changes taking place among the people who cultivated the land which caused a great deal of unhappiness. At one time in the country places most of the villagers had little pieces of land for themselves. These pieces were mixed up with the pieces belonging to the lord under whom they lived. They worked on their own land, and, in addition, they worked on the land belonging to the lord of the manor in return for their own pieces. But many of the lords began to see that they would become more wealthy if they kept sheep and sold wool instead of cultivating the land for growing corn. So they sometimes took adjoining pieces of land and made them into big fields where sheep could feed. The villagers might not have minded this so much if they had been able to work on the land as labourers and had been paid for

doing so. But keeping sheep does not need so many labourers as growing corn. And when the land was used for sheep many labourers had no work. They could get no money and had to go about begging. Sometimes they were given money or food by the monks in monasteries. But sometimes large numbers of beggars roamed about the country together and became dangerous robbers. Stern laws were passed to stop begging, and later, when Henry VIII's daughter, Elizabeth, was queen, laws were passed to try to put an end to poor people's distress. Money—or a poor-rate as it came to be called—was collected in each parish from all who could pay it. This was to be used in order to find work for those who were unemployed and to provide for those who were not able to work.

For a time Henry VIII was friendly with Sir Thomas More. He made him his Chancellor, and More was sometimes sent abroad to make treaties with other countries. But as Henry grew older he became brutal and selfish and insisted on having his own way about everything. More knew what Henry was like. He knew that if they had a serious disagreement Henry would put him to death without the slightest hesitation. Soon he discovered that Henry's friendship was not real.

Henry wanted to divorce his wife, Queen Catherine. He asked the Pope—the head of the Church—to allow him to do so, but the Pope refused. Perhaps one of the reasons why he refused was that he was afraid of Catherine's nephew, the Emperor Charles, who was a very powerful monarch and ruled the countries

of Germany and Spain. So Henry declared that, in future, the Church in England would have nothing to do with the Pope and that he himself, the king, would

now be the head of the Church in England.

Sir Thomas More did not approve of this change, but Henry insisted that everyone must agree with him. He said that by not obeying the king More was guilty of treason and ordered that his head should be cut off. More was a brave man. He made several jokes just



Henry VIII

before he was put to death. He told the executioner that his work would be easy for, he said, "my neck is very short." And he moved his beard away from his neck, saying that it would be a pity if his beard was cut by the axe since it, at any rate, had not committed treason.

4. CHANGES IN THE CHURCH

The Protestants

Henry's declaration about the Pope was the beginning in England of what is called the Reformation. It had already begun in Germany, where a man named Luther had disagreed with some of the things done in the Roman Catholic Church. Before long, in several countries, people were divided into Roman Catholics and Protestants. They disagreed about several things. The Protestants did not want to obey the Pope; they wanted simpler services, fewer ceremonies, and fewer ornaments in churches; they did not think there should be any monks. Henry agreed with the Protestants about some things and with the Catholics about other things. He agreed with the Protestants about the Pope, but he insisted that all matters connected with the churches should be decided by himself. Soon after More's death he put an end to all the monasteries in England. Although some of the monks were certainly lazy, and not keeping the rules of the founders, this was a very harsh thing to do. But the monasteries were wealthy, and Henry thought it was a good chance to get what he wanted. So he took the wealth of the monasteries for his own business, and their lands he gave or sold to his friends.

Henry was cruel to Protestants, too. Several Protestants were burned to death for not agreeing with the king. One of the Protestants who was put to death at this time, though not in England, was William

Tyndale. Tyndale had done what Erasmus wanted: he had translated the New Testament into English. He also translated some of the Old Testament, which was originally written in Hebrew, the language of the Jews. These English translations of the Bible were printed abroad, and when copies of Tyndale's New Testament were brought to England they were ordered to be burnt. This was before Henry had quarrelled with the Pope, and many of the men who were important in the church did not think that ordinary people should read the Bible without some guidance. Later, after Henry had made himself head of the Church in England, he still disliked Tyndale's opinions about religion. It was not safe for Tyndale to live in England for Henry wanted to capture him. Henry even sent spies to Flanders where Tyndale was living to try to catch him. At last Tyndale was caught by some of his other enemies in Flanders, and after being kept more than a year in prison he was put to death there because of his religious opinions. This was soon after Sir Thomas More had been executed in England.

Several times Henry changed his mind about what should be done with the churches. Many people did not know what to think about religious matters. Most Englishmen did not like the Pope, but, on the other hand, many liked the old kind of church services and disliked some of the changes which Henry made. In these days most people were very severe to those who did not agree with them about the churches; for they thought that there should only be one kind of religion and that all churches should have the same kind of services.

The Story of Thomas Cranmer

During the latter part of Henry VIII's reign the Archbishop of Canterbury was Thomas Cranmer. Cranmer agreed with Henry that the king should be head of the Church, but he was a different kind of man from Henry. He was gentle and studious. He was anxious to make more changes in the Church than Henry wanted, but he was rather timid. Sometimes he disagreed openly with Henry, but sometimes he did not dare to oppose such a powerful master.

Cranmer set his heart on two things. He wanted Englishmen to be able to read the Bible in their own language, and he wanted the services in the churches to be in English instead of in Latin. He persuaded Henry to allow an English Bible to be used in the Churches. Parts of it were to be read aloud every Sunday, and a copy was to be kept in the church where people could read it whenever they wanted. These copies were chained to a desk to prevent anyone taking them away. The translation of the Bible used for this purpose was not quite like Tyndale's translation. Much of it was really Tyndale's work, but certain changes were made, and, as Tyndale had not finished the Old Testament before his death, it had to be completed by others. Henry also agreed to allow some prayers in English to be used in services.

When Henry VIII died, the new king—his son Edward VI—was only nine years of age. The men who ruled the country for him were Protestants. So Cranmer had a better chance to make the changes he

wanted. He made up a book of prayers for use in church. Most of them he had translated from Latin prayers, which had been in use before. Some of them he wrote himself. This book was called *The Book of Common Prayer*. Certain changes have been made in it since that time, but much of it is the same as the *Book of Common Prayer* which is used in the Church of England to-day. Its beautiful language shows how well Cranmer could write English.

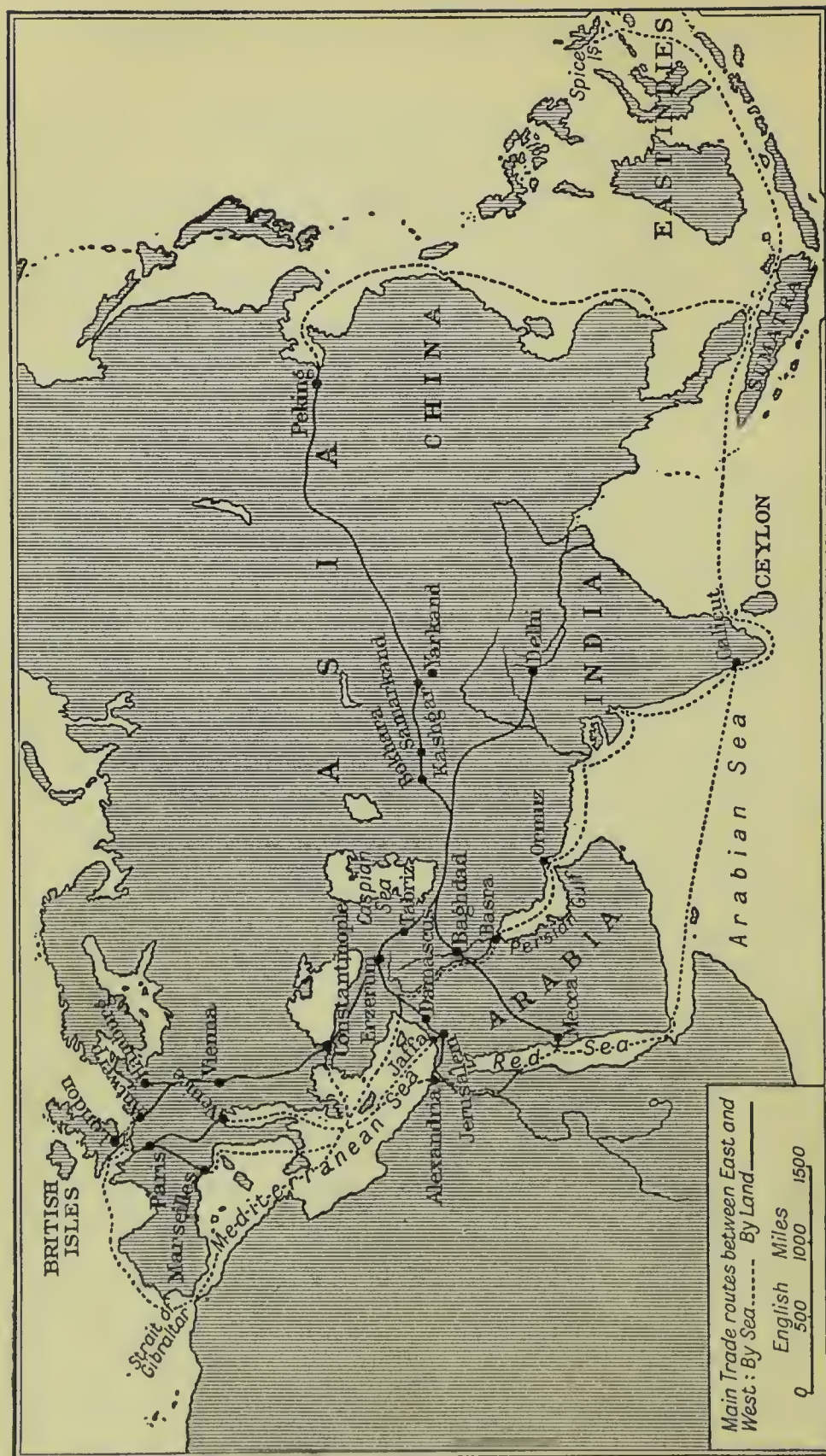
The young King Edward was a very delicate boy and he died in 1553, after a reign of only six and a half years. His sister Mary, who was older than he was, then became queen. This made a great change for Cranmer, because Mary brought back the Roman Catholic services in church, and said that the Pope was again to be head of the Church. She was very severe to the people who disagreed with her. Cranmer and several other bishops were sent to prison, and new men, who would obey the Pope, were put in their places. Two bishops named Latimer and Ridley, who were Cranmer's friends, were burned alive, and Cranmer watched their death from the window of his prison. Cranmer was timid, and he agreed to sign a paper in which he said that he had been wrong in his opinions and that the Pope should be the head of the Church. But this did not save Cranmer's life, and afterwards he was sorry he had signed the paper. When he was taken out to be burned he said so, and added that as his hand had written what he did not really believe, it would be punished first by being burned first. When the fire began to burn round him, he held his hand in a flame

and called out "This hand has offended". Soon the flames covered him and he was dead.

Many less important people were also burned to death, and this made Queen Mary unpopular. She married Philip, the king of Spain, and this, too, helped to make people dislike her. Englishmen did not like to have the Spanish king interfering with the government of their country. Besides, Philip brought England into a war with the country of France, which at the time was his greatest enemy. The French were successful; they captured the town of Calais, the last place in France which belonged to England.

Mary was unhappy. To us nowadays she seems very cruel, but when she was cruel she was doing what she thought right, and the more she did it the more people hated her. She was fond of Philip but Philip was not fond of her. He had married her, not because he liked her, but because he wanted to have some power over England. Mary had bad health; she had been queen for only five years when she died, and most people were glad. They made bonfires and feasted to celebrate the occasion.

Mary was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth, who returned to the ways of Edward's reign. Again the services in the churches were to be Protestant, and they have been Protestant ever since. Like her father Henry VIII Elizabeth refused to obey the Pope. She really made herself the head of the Church.



5. FAMOUS EXPLORERS

The Way to the East

We have read how writings and pictures excited people in the time of Henry VIII. But there was something else which caused excitement. Men were making great voyages and discovering new lands, and now that there were printed books, people could read about the wonderful adventures of these explorers.

Till the fifteenth century only a small part of the world could be shown on maps. Europe and North Africa were known. Something was also known about Asia, for traders went from Europe to distant India and China. But the south part of Africa and the continents of America and Australia were quite unknown. No one had sailed round Africa, and no one dared to sail far out into the Atlantic. When sailors went through the Straits of Gibraltar and left the Mediterranean they kept close to the coasts. Many people believed that out in the unknown ocean there were monsters and sea-serpents which could swallow ships and all their crews.

Yet merchants brought many things from the east, from places like India, and the islands of the East Indies, some of which were known as the Spice Islands. From these places there came pepper and ginger and cinnamon. They could be taken in Arab ships to the Persian Gulf or the Red Sea, but somewhere they had to be brought across land to reach the Mediterranean. Usually merchants carried them on camels and horses across Asia to big ports like Constantinople. From

there the Mediterranean sailors could take them to different European countries. But it was becoming more difficult for Europeans to trade with the east, because the Turks were growing so powerful in the lands round the east of the Mediterranean. After the Turks captured Constantinople in 1453 it became still more difficult. Traders wanted to find a new way to the East. They wondered if it would be possible to find one by sailing round Africa.

Diaz and Vasco da Gama

In 1486 a Portuguese sailor named Diaz left Portugal with two ships. He was going to find out how far south Africa stretched. He sailed right down the west coast of Africa till he came to what is now called the Orange River—farther than anyone had gone before. Then he lost sight of land, and a great storm drove his ships far south. When the storm had gone down he steered north-east and reached land. At first Diaz did not know where he was, for he had really passed the most southern cape of Africa without knowing it. Diaz wanted to go farther to the north-east along the coast, but his sailors complained of the hardships they had suffered and insisted on turning back. On the way back along the coast, they saw the cape which they had missed before. Because of the storms they had suffered Diaz called it Cabo Tormentoso, which means the Cape of Storms. When they came back to Portugal, the king of Portugal was delighted with the discovery. He said there was now some hope of the

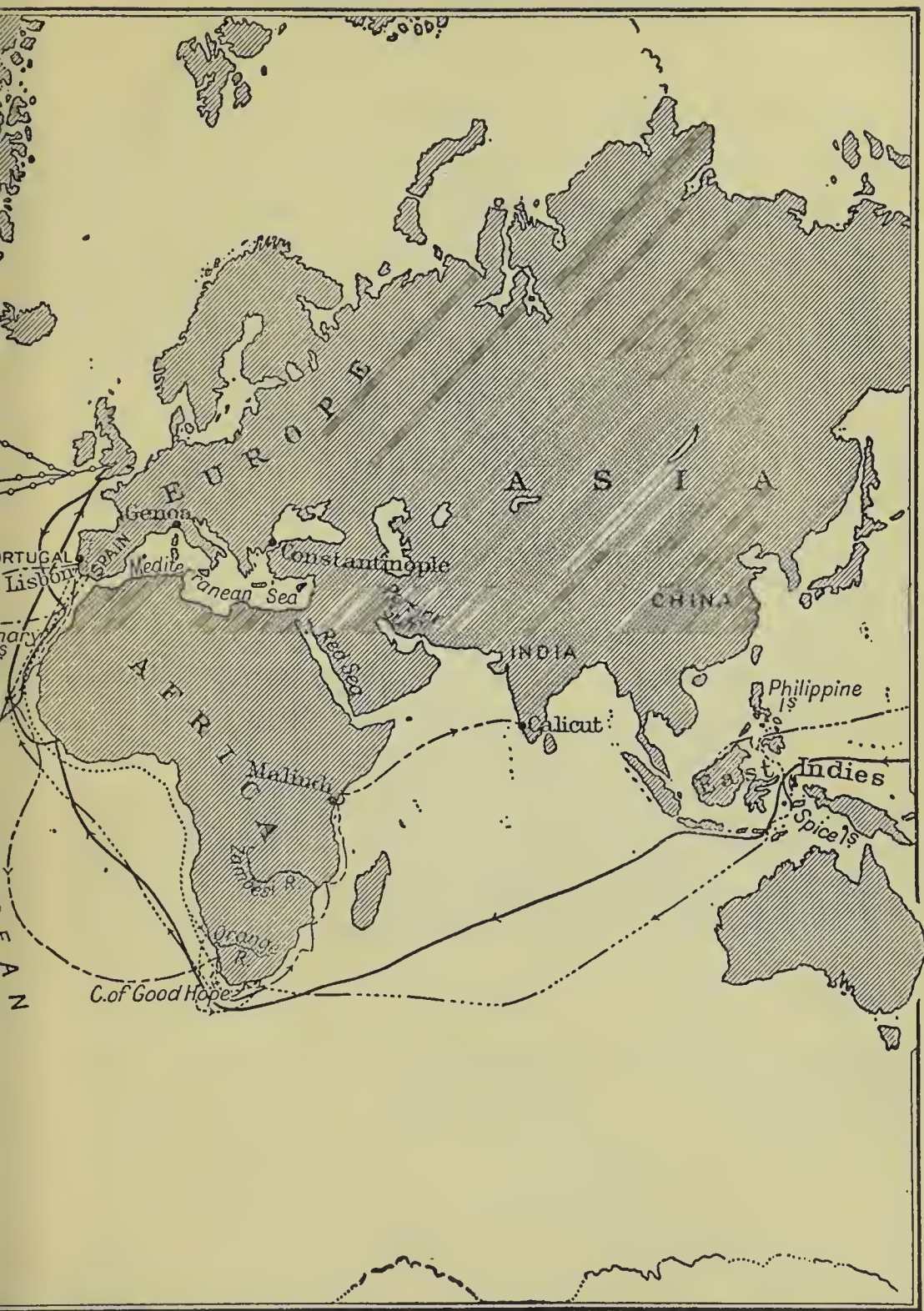
Portuguese finding a new way to the East. So he changed the name of the Cape to Cabo de Bona Speranza, which means the Cape of Good Hope.

In July, 1497, another Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, set sail from Lisbon intending to go even farther than Diaz. By November he had passed the Cape of Good Hope. Then there were terrible storms, and Vasco da Gama had great difficulty in persuading his sailors to go on till they came to the mouth of a river which is now called the Zambesi. They sailed a little distance up the river and waited there some time in order to repair the ships, which had been badly damaged by the storms. Then they sailed north again till they reached a port now named Melinda. Here they were coming back to the known world, for they met Arabs and Indian traders. The worst of their journey was over.

At Melinda Vasco da Gama got guides who would take him to India, and he set off on the last part of the voyage across the Indian Ocean. At last he reached a place on the coast of India, where the port of Calicut now stands. There he traded with the Indians and took on board cargoes of pepper and cloves and other spices. Most of these spices had come from the Spice Islands, which were farther east. Vasco da Gama then sailed back to Portugal the way he had come. His voyage had lasted three years, but he had discovered a new way to the East. Portuguese traders now knew how to sail to the East and get Eastern spices for themselves. Before long some of them settled on the coast of India and some of them sailed even farther east and reached the famous Spice Islands and China.



Map of the world showing the routes of the great explorers.



Explorers of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries

The New World: Columbus and Cabot

A few years before Vasco da Gama sailed to India round the Cape of Good Hope another wonderful discovery had been made by Christopher Columbus.

Columbus was born in Genoa. When he grew up he became a sailor. Once when he and his friends were sailing along the coast of Portugal in a merchant ship on its way to England they were attacked by pirates. Columbus's ship was set on fire and he had to swim to the shore with the help of an oar. After this he lived for some time in Portugal.

Columbus thought it would be possible to find a new way to the East by sailing west. If people sailed west and went right round the world, he said that in time they would come to China and India. He did not know that they would first come to America, for no one knew anything about America. Columbus wanted to sail west to show that he was right, and he asked the king of Portugal to help him. But the king of Portugal was not at all sure that the plan would succeed. So Columbus went to Spain, and the king and queen of Spain gave him money to provide ships and sailors for his expedition. In 1492 he started with three ships. First of all he went to the Canary Islands. Then he began to cross new and unknown seas, for after leaving the Canaries he sailed on and on to the west for many days. Nearly a month later he found land.

Columbus thought he had sailed farther round the world than he really had, for he thought he had reached Asia. But he had discovered quite a new land. The place



The ship in which Columbus crossed the Atlantic

where he landed was really one of the Bahama Islands, which are off the American coast. He sailed to other islands and declared that now they belonged to the king of Spain. Then he came home again and told people of his wonderful discoveries. Later he made other voyages and found other islands, but he still thought they were part of Asia, and all these newly discovered islands were named the *West Indies*.



John Cabot

Soon after the first great voyage of Columbus another Italian named John Cabot came to England. He, too, was preparing to cross the Atlantic, and Henry VII helped him to fit out his expedition. In 1497 he sailed from Bristol. He crossed the Atlantic much farther north than Columbus and landed on the coast of Newfoundland. Like

Columbus, Cabot thought he had reached Asia. But Newfoundland was a cold, bleak country not like the rich luxurious lands which Columbus had found.

Soon other explorers and traders followed Columbus and made further discoveries. They sailed down the coast to the south and began to find out that the new land was a huge continent. They crossed the narrow central part and saw the Pacific Ocean for the first time. One explorer named Amerigo Vespucci, who sailed down the east coast of the southern part, wrote a book in which he described the land as a "new world". And it is from Amerigo that the new world got its name, America.

Round the World: Magellan

One of the most famous explorers sent out by the king of Spain was Magellan. He left Spain in 1519 with five ships. Three months later he reached Brazil. Magellan wanted to find a way of sailing to Asia by going west, and he and his men cruised down the coast of South America looking for an opening which would lead to the ocean which had been seen on the other side of America. They came to the wide mouth of a river afterwards named La Plata. They sailed up the river a little distance to make sure that it was a river, because it might have been a strait through which they could have sailed to the Pacific. Then they went on sailing south again along the coast.

There were bad storms and many of the sailors wanted to go home. But Magellan was firm, and he was determined to go on till they found a western route to India. One day there was a mutiny. The captains of two of the ships planned to murder Magellan and they managed to capture one of the other ships. They had now three ships against Magellan's two. Magellan sent some of his own crew to one of the rebel ships and ordered the captain to surrender. He refused, and one of Magellan's men struck him with a dagger. The captain fell dead and his men surrendered to Magellan. After a time Magellan forced the two other ships to surrender and the other rebel captain was beheaded. In order to make his men obedient Magellan had to be very severe.

At last they came to the straits for which Magellan

had been looking. But the weather was stormy and they had a bad time sailing through the straits, where there were dangerous rocks and currents. The great ocean which they reached when they had passed through seemed so calm that Magellan named it the "Pacific". The dangerous straits have been called the "Straits of Magellan" from that day to this.

They did not cross the Pacific at once. Magellan wanted to see what the west of South America was like, and they sailed some distance up the coast. When they did begin to cross the Pacific they had a terrible time, for the ocean was much wider than they expected. They had not enough food. The sailors began to starve. They had to eat leather and skins. Many of them died, and all were ill. At length they came to some islands, which afterwards were called the Philippines in honour of King Philip of Spain. Magellan cruised about these islands for some time, and on one of them he met his death. He had landed with some of his men; they were attacked by a great number of savages, and in the fight, Magellan was killed.

One of Magellan's ships continued the voyage westwards. She sailed round the Cape of Good Hope and came home to Spain. The name of this ship was the *Victory*, and it was a good name. She was the first ship to sail round the world.

6. THE STORY OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

Henry VIII had a sister who married James IV, the king of Scotland. At that time England and Scotland were separate countries and had different kings. The kings of England were called Tudor; the kings of Scotland were called Stewart. Later the two countries became one, and a Stewart from Scotland became king of England as well, but that was not till long after the time of Henry VIII. In his time the rulers of Scotland and England, although they were related, were always quarrelling, and James IV was killed in a battle between the Scots and the English. The king of Scotland after James IV was his son James V, and he continued to quarrel with his uncle Henry VIII. He did not like the changes Henry made in the Church in England, and he was far more friendly with the French than with the English. The queen whom he married was a Frenchwoman. They had a little daughter Mary. Her father died when she was only a week old, and the baby, Mary, became queen of Scotland. So Mary's French mother had to rule Scotland for her.

When Elizabeth became queen of England, there was great trouble in Scotland. The baby queen, Mary, was now a young woman and lived in France, for she had married the king of France. Scotland was being ruled for her by her mother. One trouble was

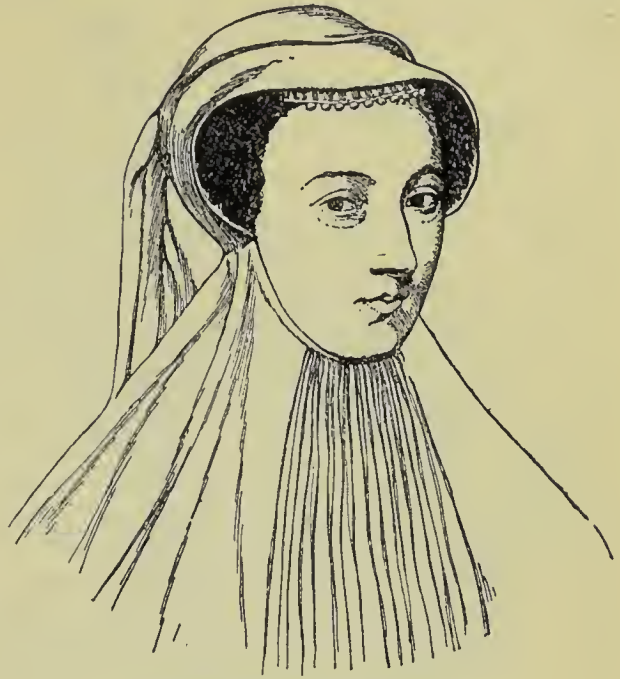
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that the Scottish lords were powerful and would not obey the queen-mother. Another trouble was that the queen-mother brought Frenchmen to help her to rule and brought French soldiers to Scotland to make people obey her. This made Scotsmen angry. They did not want to be ruled by Frenchmen. Then there was trouble about the Church, for the Reformation had begun and the queen-mother was a strong Roman Catholic. Many of the nobles and other people in Scotland were Protestants and they wanted to be friendly with the English rather than with the French.

At last things got so bad that war broke out. The Protestants and the people who wanted to get rid of the French attacked the queen-mother and her friends. Queen Elizabeth sent help, for she wanted the Protestants to win. The French soldiers were besieged in the town of Leith and had to surrender. Just before this happened the queen-mother had died. So the Protestants and those who were friendly with the English got what they wanted. They ordered the French soldiers to leave Scotland; they declared that Scotland was now a Protestant country and that the Church in Scotland would no longer obey the Pope.

While all this had been going on, the young Queen Mary was living in France. But soon her husband—the French king—died, and Mary came back to rule her own country of Scotland. She was only nineteen and she found her task very difficult. She was fond of France and she was a Roman Catholic, but many of her people were now Protestants and wanted to be friendly with Protestant England instead of with Catholic France.

There were other difficulties. Mary married a Scottish lord called Darnley, but she and Darnley did not get on well together. Both of them were too fond of having their own way and, besides, Darnley was a stupid and selfish man. They had a serious quarrel. Mary had an Italian friend



Mary Queen of Scots

called Riccio, a clever musician who used to come and play to her in the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh. Darnley became jealous of Riccio and wanted to get rid of him. One day Mary and Riccio and some others were sitting at supper in Holyroodhouse. Suddenly Darnley's friends appeared. They dragged Riccio out and stabbed him to death.

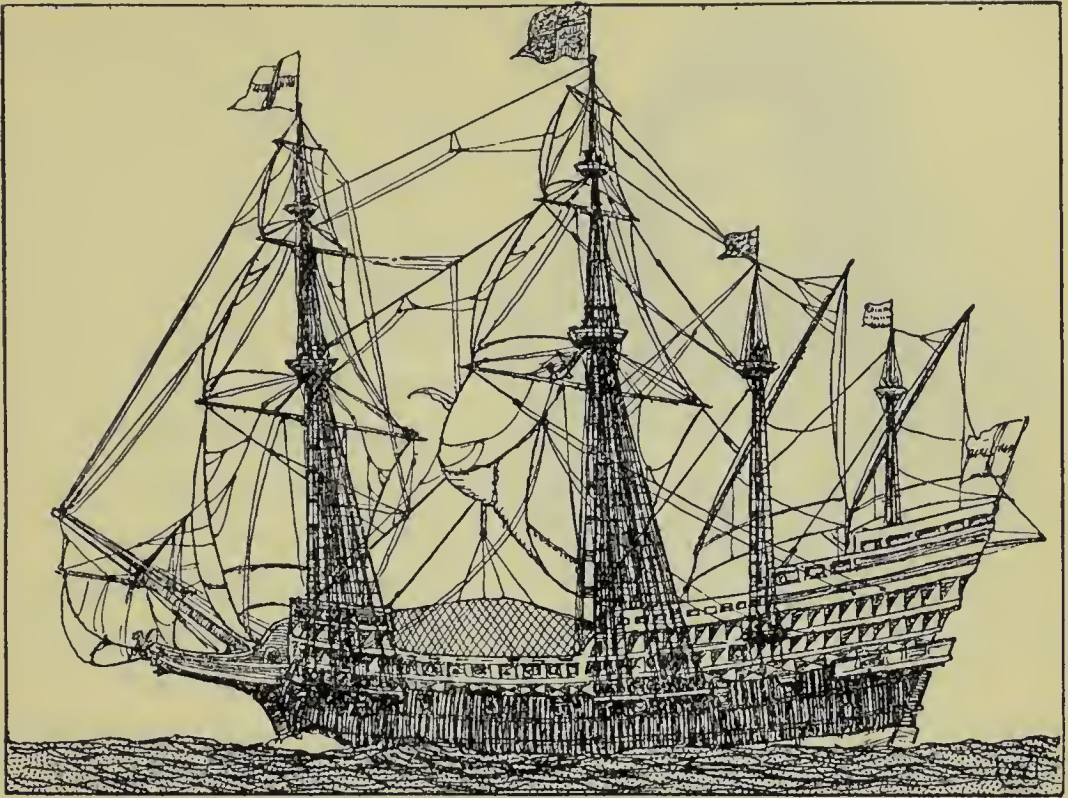
After Riccio's death Mary hated Darnley, though for a time she hid her hatred. She had another friend called Bothwell, who wanted to marry her and make himself powerful as her husband. Bothwell determined to kill Darnley just as Darnley had got rid of Riccio.

Soon after Riccio's death Darnley was ill. When he was recovering he went to live in a house in Edinburgh. Mary seemed to be quite friendly with him. One evening she had spent some time with him when

she suddenly said she had to go to Holyroodhouse. There was an entertainment there to celebrate the wedding of one of her servants. So Mary left him. That night there was a terrible explosion in the house where Darnley was living. The house had been blown up, and Darnley's dead body was found in the garden.

Everyone in Scotland knew that Bothwell had done this, and as Mary married Bothwell soon after, most people thought that she must have helped him to kill Darnley. Many Scotsmen turned against Mary after this, for they were determined that Bothwell should not rule the country. War broke out. Bothwell had to flee, and the Scottish lords told Mary she could no longer be their queen. They made her baby son James VI king, and Moray, one of the most important lords, ruled the country. Mary was put in prison and soon afterwards Bothwell died abroad.

Mary was not long in prison in Scotland, for she managed to escape and get together an army. But it was defeated by Moray at Langside near Glasgow. Mary then fled to England. She was afraid of the Protestant lords like Moray, and she thought she would be safer with Queen Elizabeth. But Elizabeth was not quite sure what to do with Mary, for Mary was the great-granddaughter of Henry VII and was, therefore, heir to the English throne. In fact, some people who did not like Elizabeth thought Mary should be made queen of England instead of her. Philip, the powerful king of Spain, thought so. Elizabeth, therefore, decided to keep Mary from making plots, and she was kept in prison in England for many years.



A warship of the time of Elizabeth

7. DRAKE, RALEIGH, SHAKESPEARE

During the long reign of Queen Elizabeth England became more and more unfriendly with Spain. Philip, the king of Spain, was still anxious to have power over England, and when his wife, the late Queen Mary of England, died, he wanted to marry her sister Elizabeth. But Elizabeth refused. She did not want Philip to get any power over England. Besides, Philip was a strong Roman Catholic and hoped to bring back the authority of the Pope over the Church in England. Elizabeth did not want this to happen. So Philip began to hope that Mary Stewart, who was in prison, would become queen of England. Plots were made between



Queen Elizabeth

Philip and Mary's friends. There was a plot to murder Elizabeth, and after this was discovered Elizabeth gave way to those who advised that Mary should be put to death. Mary was then brought out and beheaded after being in prison in England for eighteen years. When this happened Philip determined to put an end to Eliza-

beth's rule and he got ready to conquer England.

There was another reason why Philip and the English hated each other. English and Spanish sailors were always quarrelling. One of the English sailors who hated Philip was Sir Francis Drake.

Drake came from Devon. He learned to be a sailor on board a small coasting vessel which sailed between England and Europe. But Drake liked adventures. He wanted to sail across the oceans instead of the narrow seas which separated England from Europe. His chance came when his cousin John Hawkins asked him to come on an expedition across the Atlantic. They went to the West Indies and traded there. One day they were attacked by the Spaniards, and though they escaped they lost most of their cargoes. The Spaniards had been the first to settle on these newly discovered

lands and they did not want any other peoples to come trading there. So when English ships did come to these places they had to carry guns to be ready to fight the Spaniards.

Drake determined to prevent the king of Spain keeping America for himself, and he spent his life attacking the Spaniards. Whenever he could he took his revenge by seizing Spanish ships and cargoes. King Philip hated him.

In 1577 Drake set off on a great voyage. He crossed the Atlantic and sailed round South America through the Straits of Magellan. On the west coast of South America he captured a Spanish treasure ship which was bringing gold from America. That was how he annoyed the king of Spain. Then, like Magellan, he crossed the Pacific, and after three years arrived back in England. He was the first Englishman to sail round the world.

Drake made many expeditions against the Spanish lands in America. He once made an attack on the country of Spain itself. In 1587, when Philip was getting ready to attack England, Drake boldly sailed into the harbour of Cadiz where Spanish ships were waiting. He set fire to some and sank others. Then he sailed out again. He said he had singed the king of Spain's beard.

Just after this Philip sent out the great Spanish fleet called the Armada, which was to attack England and avenge the death of Mary Stewart. There were about 120 ships in all. Some of them were huge ships called galleons. They had on board some of the best soldiers of Spain. This great fleet was intended to protect another great Spanish army which was being pre-

pared to pass from Dunkirk to the shores of England in flat-bottomed boats.

Drake was one of the admirals who had to defend England from the Armada. As the Armada approached it looked very formidable. But many of the Spanish ships were too big. The smaller English ships were lighter and quicker. Besides, the Spanish commander knew very little about sailing, and on board the Spanish fleet there were too many soldiers and too few sailors. As the Armada sailed up the Channel, the English ships attacked it. They could move more quickly. They darted in and out firing and damaging the heavy Spanish galleons. Many Spaniards were killed and three Spanish ships were sunk. So the Spanish commander decided to put in to Calais, though it was a very poor harbour. Drake then sent eight blazing fireships among the Spanish fleet. The Spanish ships had to hurry out to escape fire and they came out in disorder. They were not ready for battle, and in the fight which followed several were sunk. Then there came a strong wind and the Spanish ships were blown up the North Sea.

The invasion had failed, but the Spanish ships had to get home. They had to do so by sailing right round the north of Scotland. Many ships were lost in gales and wrecked off the Western Isles and the coast of Ireland. Only about half the great Armada returned to Spain, but Drake was sorry that any of the Spanish ships had managed to get home.

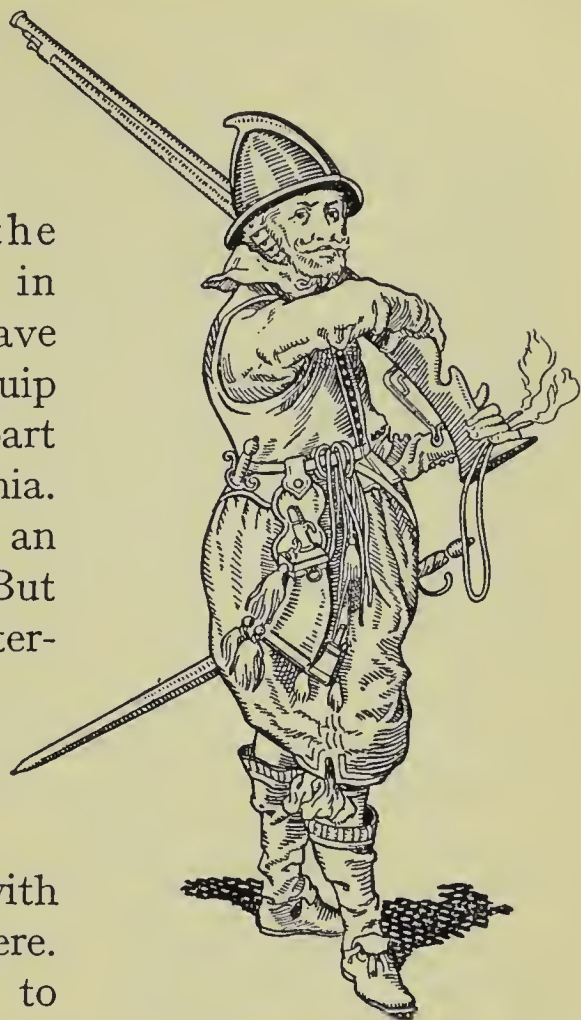
Another great adventurer of Elizabeth's reign was Sir Walter Raleigh, who, like Drake, came from Devon. Raleigh was a courtier and a great favourite with the

queen. He thought it would be a good plan for Englishmen to go and settle in North America, just as the Spanish had settled in South America. So he gave money and helped to equip an expedition to that part of America called Virginia. He hoped to make an English colony there. But the settlers were too interested in searching for gold to cultivate the land and make a place where they could live.

Besides they quarrelled with the natives who lived there. They were quite glad to be brought home later by Drake. Again more colonists

were sent out, but when people sailed over afterwards to find out how they were getting on they had all disappeared.

Raleigh now thought he would try to found a colony on the north coast of South America. This was more dangerous because it would be near the Spaniards, but there might be more chance of finding gold. Raleigh had heard there was a city called Eldorado up the River Orinoco where great quantities of gold were



An English soldier of the time
of Elizabeth

to be found. So he led an expedition himself up the Orinoco River. With a hundred men and ten little boats they sailed more than 400 miles up the river. They had many difficulties. The current of the river was sometimes very strong; they endured great heat and terrible showers of rain. But they never found Eldorado, for there was no such place. They did find a beautiful country where Raleigh thought people might settle. When he came home, he wrote a book about it, but no one was very interested in his plan.

Part of his life Raleigh spent in Ireland. In his garden there he grew tobacco and potatoes. Both these things were new to this country. They had been brought by sailors from America. There is a story which tells how Raleigh's servant got a great fright the first time he saw his master smoking a pipe. He had come into the room carrying a glass of ale, but when he saw smoke coming out of his master's mouth he thought he was burning, and he threw the ale in his face in order to put out the fire.

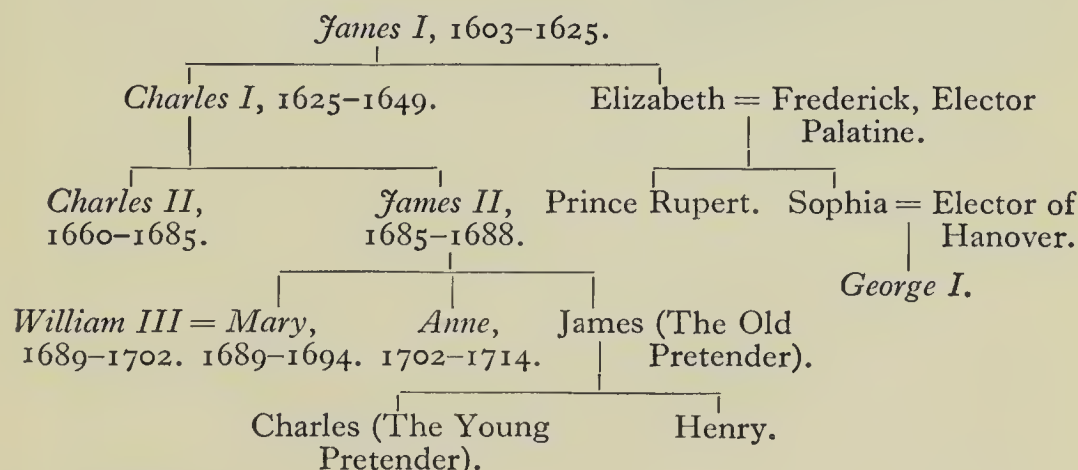
But of all the men who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the most widely known to-day is William Shakespeare. In spite of his greatness, however, we know very little about his life. We know he was born in April, 1564, at Stratford-on-Avon. A few years before 1564 registers began to be kept in all the churches. In these registers were written the names of all the people, and the date of their baptism and death. We find from them that Shakespeare was baptized on the 26th of April, 1564, and died on the 23rd of April, 1616. We also know that when he was about

14 years of age, his parents were becoming poor. This would probably prevent him from finishing his education at the Grammar School.

It is his plays, however, that show his greatness. From these we can see that he had most remarkable knowledge and experience of all classes of people and of the general things in everyday life. In every part of the world, Shakespeare's name is known; and he is regarded by those who have studied his plays as the greatest dramatist of all times. From these plays we can learn, among many other things, what the people of England were like in those days and how proud they were of their own country.

The Stewarts

James I,	1603-1625.	James II,	1685-1689.
Charles I,	1625-1649.	William III	
		and Mary II,	1689-1694.
The Common-		William III	
wealth,	1649-1660.	(alone),	1694-1702.
Charles II,	1660-1685.	Anne,	1702-1714.



St. Paul's Bow Church Guildhall The Exchange



The Globe

A PICTURE OF PART OF LONDON MADE EARLY IN TH

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

63

Leadenhall

St. Dunstan
in the east Billingsgate



St. Mary's Overy

EVENTEENTH CENTURY. LONDON BRIDGE IS SEEN ON THE RIGHT

8. A SCOTTISH KING COMES TO ENGLAND

In the month of March, 1603, messengers rode from London to Edinburgh to tell James VI of Scotland that Queen Elizabeth was dead. James was the son of the unfortunate Mary Stewart. He had been heir to the English throne and he now became King James I of England. Soon he set off for his new kingdom. His journey to London lasted nearly a month, for on the way south he often stopped to visit the English nobles and to enjoy himself hunting deer. In all the villages on his way people crowded to see him.

James was a strange-looking man. His tongue was too big for his mouth and he spoke in a curious way. He was very timid and wore padded clothes because of his fear of murderers. He hated any kind of violence. He always remembered that his father, Darnley, had been murdered, and that his mother had been beheaded. Once, when he was quite young, he had been kidnapped by some Scottish nobles, who then ruled the country for several months while he was in their power. These dangers had made him determined that when he came to England the king should have supreme power.

James was a learned man, and in some ways quite a wise man; but he was obstinate and conceited. Some people called him "the British Solomon"; but a clever Frenchman who knew him better called him "the wisest fool in Christendom". He was not good

at recognizing able men when he met them, and in any case he did not like to take advice from able men. He was so sure his own opinions were right. Though he was often good-natured he hated being contradicted. And he annoyed people in England very much by choosing foolish favourites to help him to govern.

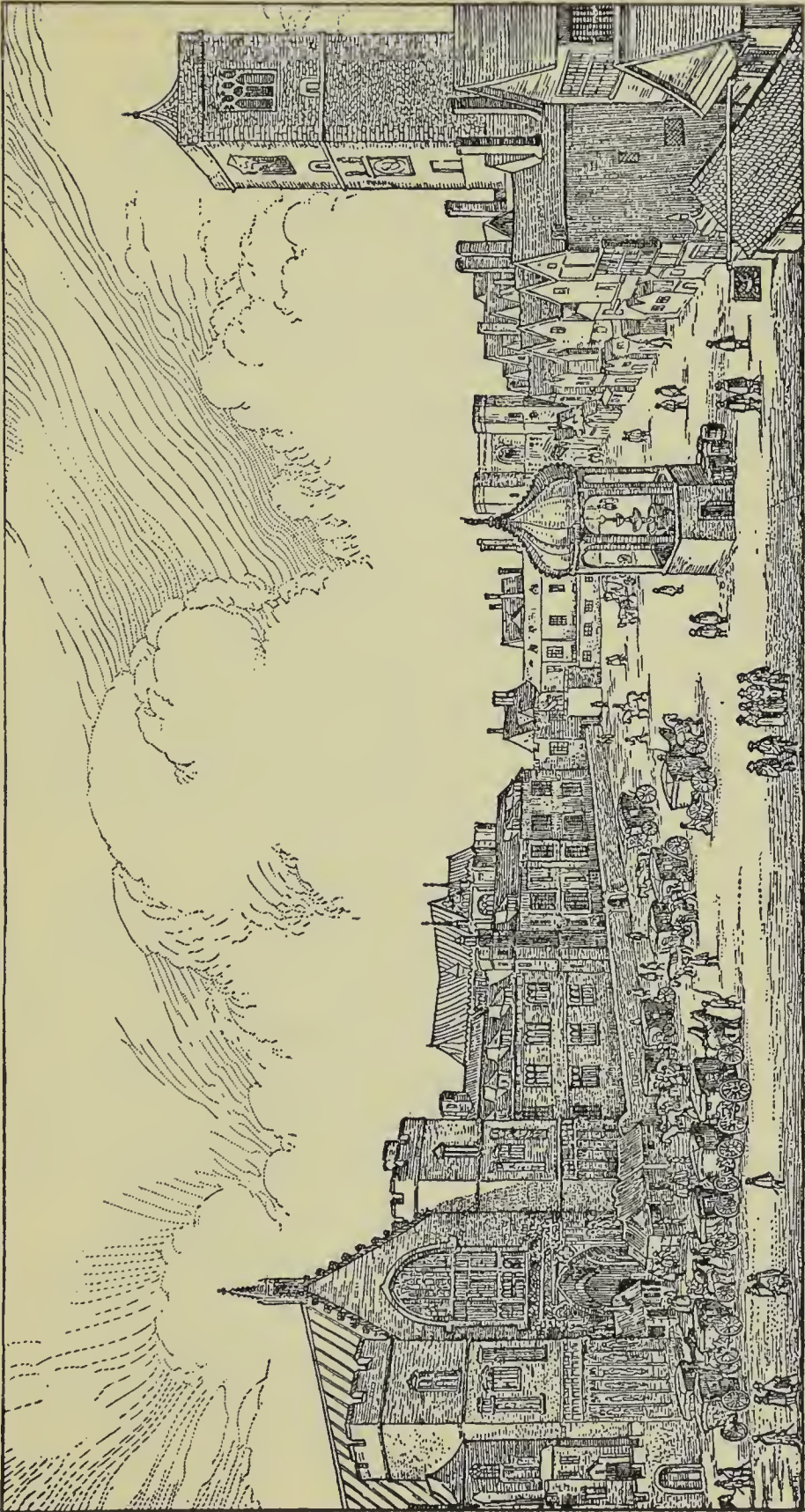
Soon after he became king people began to get angry with James and to criticize him in Parliament. Parliament then, as now, consisted of Members of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In the House of Lords there were the peers—the nobles of the country; in the House of Commons there were men from the different counties and towns. Their business was to help to make the laws and to give their opinions about how the country should be governed. When they disapproved of anything James did they made speeches about it in Parliament.

Many members of Parliament disagreed with James about Spain. James wanted England to be at peace, and when he became king he put an end to the war with Spain, which had been going on since the time of the Armada. This was very sensible. The Spaniards were no longer dangerous to England. But James wanted to do more than this; he wanted to make a friendly treaty with Spain and to marry his son to a Spanish princess. Now, many Englishmen still feared Spain. They remembered the Armada and they thought that Spain might try to force England to accept the Catholic religion. Though Spain was not really strong enough to do this, something happened which made people more than ever afraid of Catholics and of Spain.

66 SCOTTISH KING COMES TO ENGLAND

Some Catholics in England made a plot to kill James and his ministers and all the members of Parliament. A great quantity of gunpowder was put in a cellar below the Houses of Parliament. It was to be fired on 5th November when James was making a speech to Parliament. One of the plotters named Guy Fawkes guarded the cellar. He was to set fire to the gunpowder when the day came. But another of the plotters had a friend in Parliament. He did not want him to be killed and he sent him a letter in which he advised him not to go to Parliament that day. The letter said " they shall receive a terrible blow this Parliament and yet they shall not see who hurts them ". The friend took the mysterious letter to the king's ministers. They guessed what it meant and the cellar below Parliament was searched. Guy Fawkes was found guarding the gunpowder. The plot was discovered and Guy Fawkes and the other conspirators were put to death. The Gunpowder Plot made people very much afraid of Spain, which had been a strong Catholic country, and also made them more eager to oppose James when he wanted to be friendly with Spain.

Sir Walter Raleigh, the great sailor, hated the Spaniards, and this made James dislike him. But there were many other people in England who disliked Raleigh because he was so proud. And when James became king Raleigh was accused of taking part in a plot. He was imprisoned in the Tower and kept there for thirteen years. While he was in prison he spent his time writing a history of the world and thinking about the lands in America which he still wanted to



A part of Westminster as it was in 1647. Look also at page 85

explore. He was sure that if he went back to the Orinoco in South America he would be able to find gold. Many times he asked James to set him free and let him go back to explore South America.

James did not want to annoy the Spaniards, who were trying to keep South America to themselves, but he did want the gold, and at last he agreed to allow Raleigh to go on an expedition. When the Spaniards heard this they were angry, but James told them Raleigh had promised not to interfere with the Spanish settlers.

Raleigh sailed to the Orinoco, but his expedition was a failure. He found no gold and he could not keep his promise about the Spaniards. He had several fights with the Spanish settlers. When he came home James was very angry. Raleigh was again put in prison, and shortly afterwards was beheaded. James did this really to please Spain.

It was not only about Spain that James and Parliament quarrelled. There was trouble about the Church. Many Englishmen were what were called Puritans. They thought that Henry VIII and Elizabeth had not made enough changes in the Church. They wanted fewer ceremonies in the Church services, and they thought there should be no bishops or that, at any rate, the bishops should have less power.

James did not like the Puritans and their opinions. He wanted to have bishops in the Church. He appointed the bishops, and so long as he did so he could be the real head of the Church. One of his sayings was "No bishop, no king". He meant by this that if

people objected to the authority of the bishop, they would object to the authority of the king also. He thought, too, that unless there were bishops whom he could control he would not have enough power to be a real king. So he refused to allow the changes the Puritans wanted and three hundred Puritan clergymen were forced to leave their parishes. Many members of Parliament were Puritans, and they made angry speeches against James's opinions about the Church. Some of the more eager Puritans in England so disliked the way the Church was ruled that they left the country and went to America. We shall read about them later.

Another thing James and Parliament quarrelled about was money. Sometimes James was to blame; sometimes Parliament. James needed a great deal of money for the government of the country and Parliament did not give him enough. But James wasted money, and when Parliament did not give him what he needed, he wanted to collect money from the country without Parliament's agreement. The members of Parliament said this was illegal, and they were very angry. James claimed that the king had more power than Parliament would allow: Parliament thought the king had too much power already.

When James was old he allowed one of his foolish friends, the Duke of Buckingham, to become his chief adviser. The people in Parliament did not like Buckingham. They waited anxiously to see what James's son Charles would be like when he became king; they hoped he would not be like his father.

9. THE REIGN OF CHARLES I (I)

Charles and Buckingham

Charles I became king of England in 1625 when his father James I died. There are several splendid portraits which show us what Charles looked like. They were painted by a great artist called Van Dyck, who came from Antwerp. Charles was fond of pictures, and for a time Van Dyck lived in England as the court painter.

In many ways Charles differed from his father. He was shy and dignified in his manner. But he was like James in two things. He was obstinate—even more obstinate than James—and he was very fond of the Duke of Buckingham. For some years Charles and Buckingham ruled the country together, but Buckingham was a foolish ruler and gave Charles bad advice. Before long there were to be serious quarrels between Charles and Parliament—more serious than the quarrels between James and Parliament.

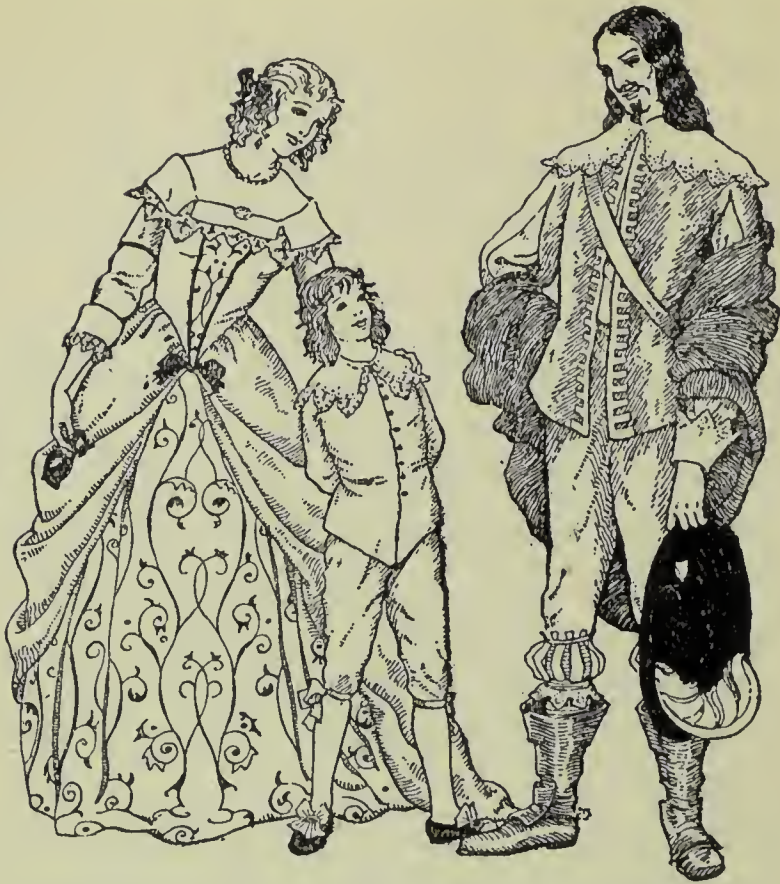
At first it looked as if Charles might get on quite well with Parliament. Buckingham and he had quarrelled with Spain, and instead of trying to be friendly with Spain they went to war. Many people were pleased. But the war was badly managed. An expedition was sent to attack Cadiz, but it was not well arranged and proved to be a failure. Shortly afterwards Buckingham was foolish enough to quarrel with France, and soon England was at war with France as well. An attack against France was planned. Soldiers were sent over to try to capture the town of La Rochelle,

and were landed on a little island near the town. This expedition was also a failure. There was not enough food provided for the soldiers, and they were not properly paid. Some deserted, others mutinied, and the rest had to be brought back having done nothing against France.

It was not only Buckingham's fault that these expeditions were such failures, but it was partly his fault and he got most of the blame. In Parliament people made angry speeches and said that Charles must dismiss his bad minister. But Charles was very annoyed and would not part with Buckingham. Once he said to the House of Commons: "I would not have the House to question my servants, much less one that is so near me." He was determined not to let Parliament have much power.

Nearly everyone disliked Buckingham. One day he was at Portsmouth preparing for another attack on La Rochelle. He had been having breakfast, and when he came into the hall of the house in which he was living a man named Felton approached him. Felton had been a soldier who had served at La Rochelle and had not been properly paid. He had come to kill Buckingham. He plunged his knife into Buckingham crying "God have mercy on thy soul". Buckingham pulled out the knife, and shouting "Villain!" tried to chase the murderer, but after taking a few steps he fell dead.

Charles was very sorry and very angry when he heard of Buckingham's murder, but the members of Parliament were glad that Buckingham could no longer



This is how rich people dressed in the time of Charles I

interfere. They hoped that the country would now be better governed. But the quarrels between Charles and Parliament only got worse. Charles did not like the Puritans and most of the members of Parliament were Puritans. Besides, he collected taxes without Parliament's agreement. And if people refused to pay he put them in prison. He refused to let Parliament tell him what he was allowed to do and what he was not allowed to do.



CHARLES I
(A photograph of a painting by Van Dyck)

Wentworth and Eliot

Among the members of Parliament who had disliked Buckingham and made speeches against him were Sir Thomas Wentworth and Sir John Eliot. Wentworth had hated to see the country badly governed and he was very pleased that Charles no longer had the advice of Buckingham. But Wentworth was not like most of the other people in Parliament. He was not a Puritan; he agreed with Charles that the bishops should be strong. Besides, he wanted the king to be powerful. He did not think the country would be well governed if Parliament interfered too much with the king and his ministers. Wentworth was a clever man and he was ambitious. He thought that he himself could rule the country well and he hoped to become the king's chief minister. So he began to support Charles against Parliament. Most of the other people in Parliament called him a traitor, but Wentworth was doing what he thought best for the country.

Sir John Eliot was quite different. Like the Puritans he wanted the bishops to have less power and he wanted fewer ceremonies in the Church services. Above all, he wanted Parliament to be important. Charles, he thought, had shown himself to be a bad ruler, and Parliament must be strong enough to prevent him doing whatever he liked. The other members of Parliament had a great respect for Eliot. He was their leader and he stood up for their rights. For Eliot went on objecting to the king's collecting money without Parliament's consent. He knew that if the king managed

to get plenty of money without asking Parliament for it, he would never listen to what Parliament had to say about his methods of governing.

Charles became so annoyed with Parliament objecting to his ways that he decided he would govern without getting any help at all from Parliament. So he dissolved Parliament and did not call together another for eleven years. When Parliament was dissolved Charles imprisoned Sir John Eliot in the Tower of London. The prison was cold and unhealthy and Eliot could not get proper exercise. He became very ill, but Charles would not let him be moved elsewhere. Eliot grew worse and died after having been in the Tower three years. When Eliot's son asked that his father's body might be brought to Cornwall and buried beside those of his ancestors Charles replied: "Let Sir John Eliot's body be buried in the church of that parish where he died." So he was buried in the Tower.

Meanwhile Wentworth had become the king's chief minister. He ruled the country sternly and did not care what people thought about him. He believed that people should be governed without asking them how they thought they should be governed. Anyone who disobeyed was brought before a court called the Court of Star Chamber and punished. People began to dread the Star Chamber and to hate Wentworth for his tyranny. Charles made Wentworth an earl and thereafter he was known as the Earl of Strafford.

All this time money was being collected without Parliament's agreement, for there was no Parliament in existence. A squire from Buckinghamshire named John



Archbishop Laud
Previously Bishop of London

Hampden refused to pay one of the king's taxes. The money from this tax was to be used to build ships, so the king said; but Hampden maintained that the tax was illegal. Hampden was punished by a heavy fine; but he had encouraged

other people to refuse to pay. Other things were happening which made people more and more angry. Charles and the bishops were ruling the Church and refusing to allow the kind of services that the Puritans wanted. Some Puritans wrote books attacking the bishops. They were brought before the Star Chamber and punished. Some of their books were very violent and silly, but the writers were punished so severely that people were sorry for them. Several were ordered to have their ears cut off.

10. THE REIGN OF CHARLES I (2)

Wentworth and Pym

Charles and Strafford had ruled without the help of Parliament for several years when they had a quarrel with the Scots. Charles was king of Scotland as well as of England, and he wanted to control the Church in Scotland as he controlled the Church in England. He ordered the Scots to use a new Prayer Book in their church services. Many of the Scots did not like it and refused to use it. Charles would not give way and before long he was at war with Scotland.

At last Charles had to send for a Parliament. He found he could not get enough money to pay for fighting the Scots unless he asked Parliament to agree to more taxes. But when the members of Parliament met they would not go to war with Scotland. They had something much more serious to talk about. They told Charles that he must change his ways of ruling; the tyranny must come to an end.

Eliot was dead and Wentworth, now Earl of Strafford, was on the side of the king, but Parliament still had great leaders. One of them was the John Hampden who had refused to pay the tax for building ships, but the greatest of them all was John Pym. Pym now told the king that his ways of getting money without Parliament's consent must stop and that the hated Star Chamber must be abolished. Nearly everyone agreed with Pym, and Charles dared not refuse these

demands. Pym determined to get rid of Strafford: he was afraid that if Strafford was allowed to live he would help Charles to restore the tyranny.

Parliament decided that Strafford must die. Some of the members of Parliament, though they hated Strafford, might not have insisted on his death, but just at this time Charles did a foolish thing. He began secretly to arrange for an army, which he had in Yorkshire, to come and rescue him from Parliament. When this was discovered people felt that Charles could not be trusted to keep his promises to Parliament. They thought that he would again get Strafford to help him, and they feared Strafford. So Parliament said Strafford must die. But Strafford could not be put to death without Charles's consent. Would Charles allow the death of the man who had done so much for him? Charles was very unhappy. He had written Strafford saying: "Upon the word of a king you shall not suffer in life, honour, or fortune." But there were crowds outside the palace shouting that Strafford must die. Charles was frightened. At last he consented. He said: "If my own person only were in danger I would gladly venture it to save Lord Strafford's life; but seeing my wife, children, and all my kingdom are concerned in it, I am forced to give way unto it." When Strafford heard of Charles's decision he said: "Put not your trust in princes." Two days later he was beheaded.

Nearly everyone in Parliament had disliked Strafford, but after Strafford's death the members of Parliament began to quarrel with one another. Pym and the more eager Puritans began to do things that many

did not like. They said there should be no more bishops and that people should stop using The Book of Common Prayer. But since the days of Cranmer and Queen Elizabeth people had become fond of the Prayer Book; they were accustomed to using it in the Church services and they did not want to stop using it. Then Pym and his friends said that in future the power of Parliament should be greater and that of the king much less. Though many people disapproved of the things Charles I had done they thought Pym was going too far. Some began to call him "King Pym" because he seemed to be making himself and his friends take the place of the king.

Quite a number of people began to go to the king's side. Even more might have gone, but again Charles did a foolish thing. He wanted to punish Pym and Hampden and three other members of Parliament who had annoyed him. The queen, who hated Parliament, said to him: "Go along, you coward, and pull those rascals out by the ears." So Charles went down to Parliament with five hundred soldiers. When Charles entered the House of Commons where the members were sitting he said, "Is Mr. Pym here?" No one answered. Then he asked for the other four, but no one would say where they were. "Well," said Charles, "I think my eyes are as good as another's," and he looked for the five men. But they had heard that Charles was coming and they had disappeared. "Well," Charles said, "I see all the birds are flown," and he turned to go out. As he went out the members muttered "Privilege, privilege". They were furious that Charles had



A Cavalier

insulted Parliament and its privileges by coming to arrest its members with armed soldiers.

It was now clear that there was no hope of agreement between Charles and Parliament, and they got ready to fight. There were many in London who were Puritans and friends of Parliament. So Charles left London. Those members of Parliament who had begun to dislike Pym, followed Charles and joined him at Nottingham. People were arming all over the country. By 1642 war had begun.

The king's friends were called "Cavaliers"; the friends of Parliament were nicknamed "Roundheads", for some of the Puritans kept their hair short and this made their heads look as if they were round. They thought it silly and vain to wear long locks.

Cavaliers and Roundheads

When the war between Charles and Parliament started, there was fighting nearly everywhere, for there were Roundheads and Cavaliers all over the country. But there were more of the Cavaliers among the people

in the north-west and more of the Roundheads in the south-east. Charles hoped to capture London, which was in the hands of his enemies.

One of the king's generals was his nephew Prince Rupert. Rupert was quite a good soldier and he did his best to win the war for his uncle. But he was sometimes too rash in battle, and more than once his rashness helped to spoil his chance of victory. On the side of Parliament was Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell was a cousin of Hampden and a friend of Pym. He came from Huntingdon and had been a member of the Parliament which disapproved of Charles I. When the war began he became a soldier and he was soon to show that he was the greatest soldier in England.

There were many battles. The king won several victories and at first it looked as if he might win the war. In 1643 Pym, who had been managing things in London, died. The cause of the Roundheads seemed to be in great danger. But Cromwell, who at this time was in command of part of the Roundhead army, was determined to defeat the



A Roundhead

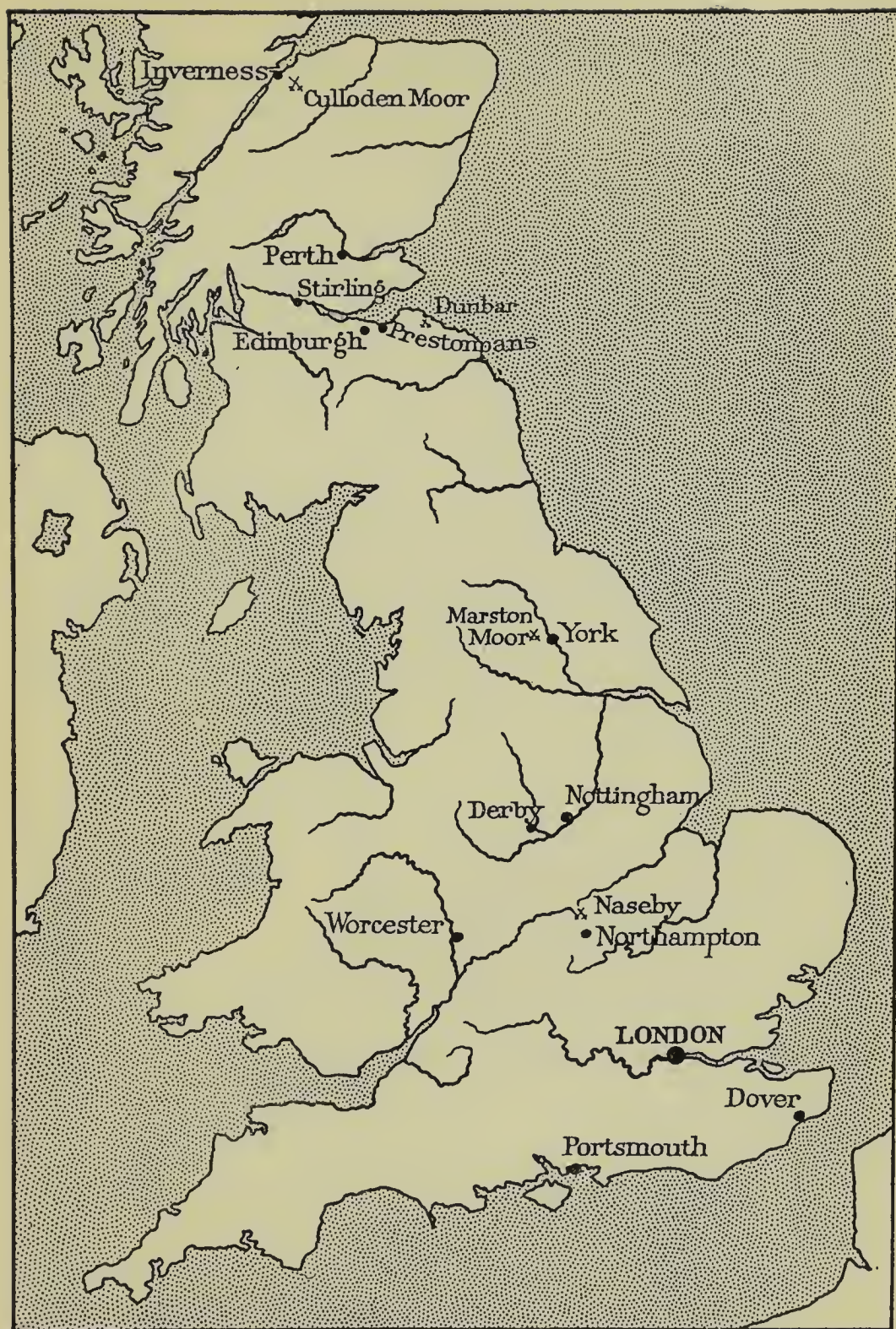
king at all costs. So he trained his soldiers very carefully and made sure that their discipline was good. His soldiers were staunch Puritans and they were devoted to their general. They came to be known as "Cromwell's houndes". And Cromwell and his "houndes" were to prove of great service to the Roundheads.

Before Pym died he had done one thing which was also to be a help to the Roundheads. He asked the Scots to come to their aid, and the Scots sent an army across the border.

There was a battle at Marston Moor near York, and Cromwell and the Scots won a great victory. The battle began well for the Cavaliers; their horsemen drove some of the Scots from the field, but they chased them too far. Cromwell had defeated the Cavaliers in his part of the battle, but instead of chasing them far he turned to help the rest of the Scots. Soon Rupert and the Cavaliers were completely defeated. After the battle the north of England fell into the hands of the Roundheads. Only the south-west held out for Charles.

Some of the other Roundhead generals were half-hearted about the war, but Cromwell knew that it was no use fighting against the king unless they defeated him properly. So he got himself and one of his friends, Fairfax, put in command of the whole Roundhead army.

Another great battle took place in 1645. Charles and Rupert led their army from the south-west. They met the army of Cromwell and Fairfax beside the little village of Naseby, near Northampton. Just as at Marston Moor, Rupert made a successful charge, but



Map showing places mentioned in Chapters 10, 11, and 14

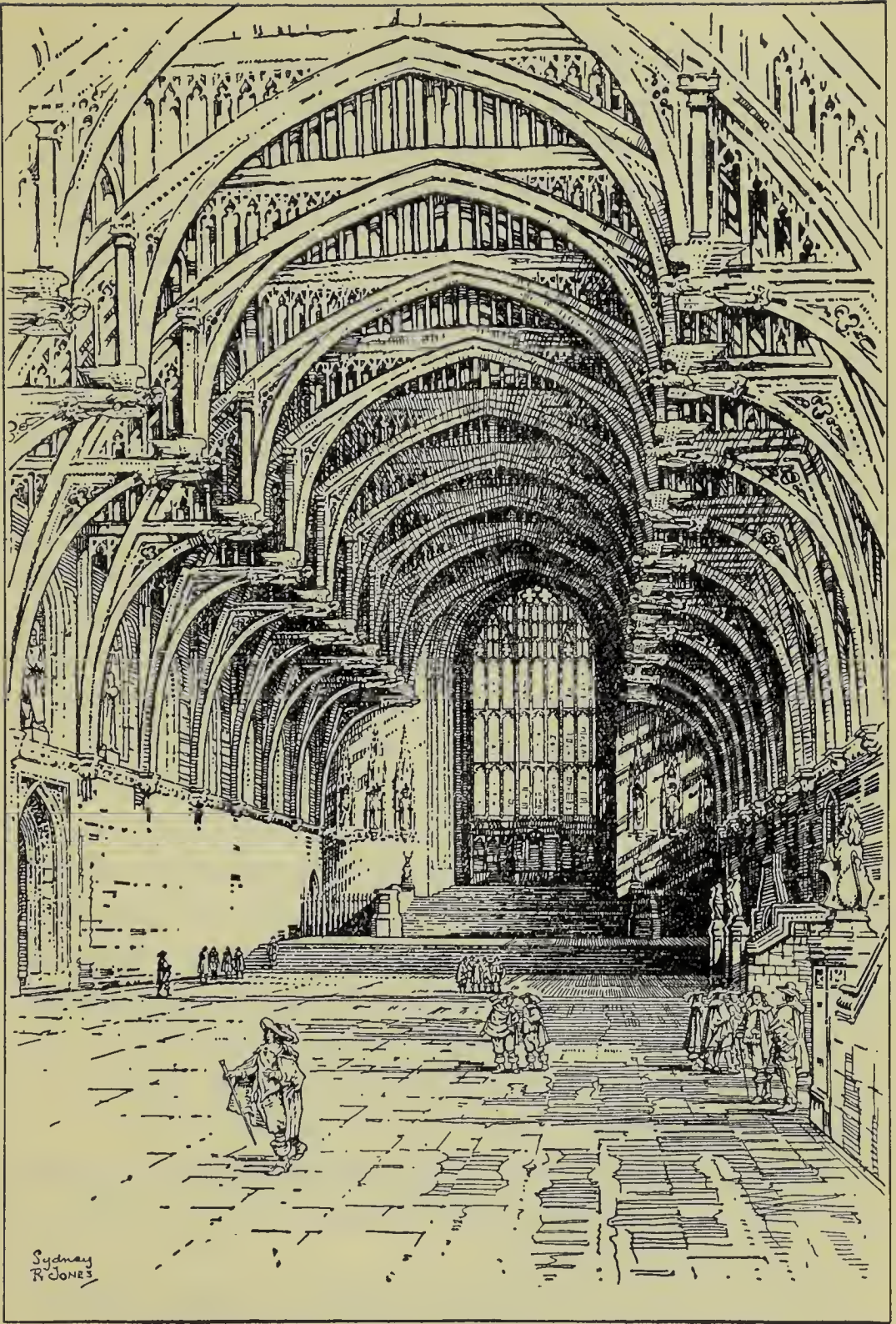
again he chased his enemies too far from the battle-field. He did not stop to see what was happening to the rest of the army, and when he came back the battle had gone against his friends. The king's men could not hold their own against the charges of the Roundheads. One time King Charles was preparing to ride at the head of his men against the terrible attacks of Cromwell's soldiers. Someone seized the bridle of his horse, exclaiming: "Will you go upon your death," and Charles was turned back. Soon he had to flee. The Cavaliers were defeated and great numbers of them were taken prisoner.

After the battle of Naseby the Cavaliers had no real hope of winning a victory. Charles surrendered to the Scots. They did not know what to do with him and they handed him over to Parliament.

II. THE RULE OF OLIVER CROMWELL

The Execution of Charles I

Parliament had defeated the king and Cromwell had become the most important man in the country. What was going to happen? Now Charles was defeated, his enemies began to quarrel among themselves about how the country and the Church should be governed. Some of the Scots wanted to make the Church in England like the Scottish Church—a Church without bishops. The Church in Scotland had become Presbyterian, as it is



Westminster Hall, where Charles I was sentenced to death

to-day. Some of the men on Cromwell's side agreed with the Scots. Cromwell thought this would be a mistake. He knew there were many people in England who would not like this change, and he wanted to settle things in a way that would please as many people as possible.

There was one thing on which Cromwell was quite firm. That was that Charles, though he might continue as king, should be prevented from obtaining much power. He tried to arrange with Charles some way of ending all the troubles in the country. But Charles could now take advantage of the quarrel between his enemies, and while he was pretending to arrange things with Cromwell he started to plot with the Scots. He promised that he would do what they wanted if they would fight for him against Cromwell. They agreed to do so; they went over to Charles's side and war broke out again.

The new war did not last long, for Cromwell defeated the army of the Scots. This time he determined that Charles must be put to death. He could not trust him any longer. Charles was tried before a court of Cromwell's friends. He was accused of waging war against Parliament and was sentenced to be beheaded. A few days later the sentence was carried out in front of the palace of Whitehall.

When Charles I was dead, some people, including the Scots, said that his son Charles was now king and got ready to fight for him.

Young Charles, who had been in refuge abroad, landed in Scotland. Cromwell was determined to have

no more Stewart kings and he marched his army north. He defeated the Scottish army at Dunbar, but nearly a year later Charles managed to slip past Cromwell's army and marched into England. Cromwell pursued him and met his army at Worcester. Again Cromwell won the victory. He called it his "crowning mercy". The battle was on 3rd September, 1651, exactly a year after the battle of Dunbar. So Cromwell considered 3rd September as his lucky day.

Young Charles escaped from the battlefield of Worcester. He had many exciting adventures, for Cromwell's soldiers were looking for him. A reward was offered to anyone who captured him. He was described as "a tall man, above two yards high, with dark brown hair scarcely to be distinguished from black". One time it was too dangerous for Charles to hide in any house, and he and one of his soldiers sheltered in the branches of an oak tree while, it is said, Cromwell's men were passing underneath. Often he had to go about disguised. Once he took his horse to a blacksmith, for it had lost a shoe. He asked the blacksmith if there was any news. The blacksmith said: "There is no news since the good news of the beating of the rogues the Scotch," and he added that he did not know whether "that rogue Charles Stewart had been taken". Charles replied: "If that rogue were taken he deserves to be hanged more than the rest." The blacksmith had no idea that he was talking to Charles Stewart himself.

At last Charles managed to reach the coast, where he got a boat to take him to France.

Cromwell: the Lord Protector

Cromwell was now the real ruler of the country; but there were many people against him. Many who had once been on his side had been horrified at the execution of Charles I and had turned against him.

It was only because so many of Cromwell's soldiers were devoted to him that he was able to keep himself in power. Soon people complained that Cromwell and his soldiers were as tyrannous as Charles I had been. Cromwell was in a difficult position. He had not wanted to become a tyrant, but he knew that only the rule of a strong man like himself would prevent the return of Charles II.

Cromwell was called the "Lord Protector"; he had really become a kind of king. He called together Parliaments, like the king, but he would not allow people who had fought for Charles to become members of them. Nor would he allow these Parliaments to interfere with him too much in case his power was weakened. Even many of the people who had fought for Parliament against Charles thought they had fought in vain. They now seemed to have a master sterner even than Charles I. But though Cromwell was stern he was just and trustworthy.

Cromwell died in 1658 on 3rd September—his lucky day. His son Richard Cromwell could not carry on his rule as his father had intended. He was a weak man and, in any case, the soldiers did not like him as they had liked his father. Even some of Cromwell's soldiers, like most people in the country, began to



Oliver Cromwell

think the best plan would be to bring back Charles II. And Charles II was asked to return as king. He landed at Dover in 1660, and there was great rejoicing all over the country.

Admiral Blake

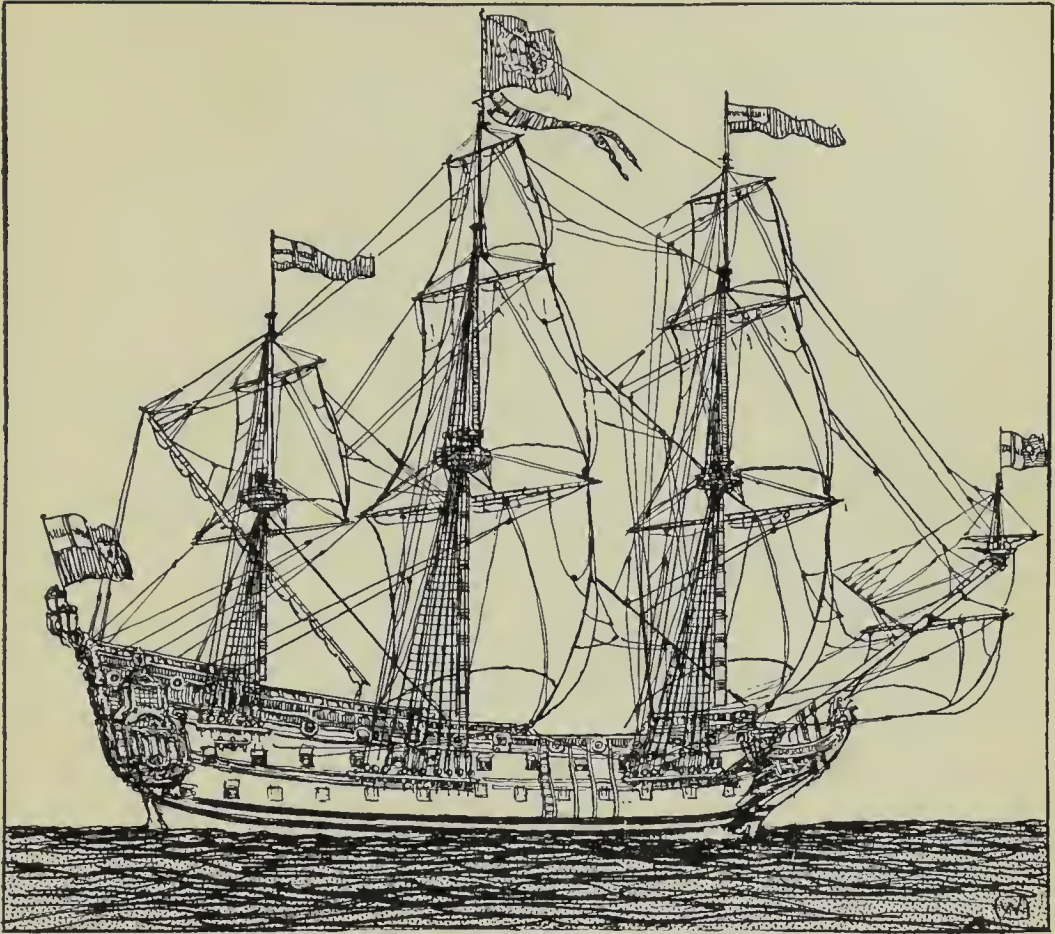
While Oliver Cromwell was the greatest English soldier of his time, the greatest admiral was Robert Blake. But Blake was a soldier before he became an admiral. Like Cromwell, he had lived a peaceful life in the country until the war between Charles I and Parliament began. Then Blake became a soldier and fought for the Roundheads. After the execution of Charles I Blake was put in command of the fleet. His work was to protect England against her enemies at sea, and

before long he was fighting against the Dutch—the people of Holland.

For many years the English and the Dutch had been rivals at sea and had been quarrelling about trade. After the Portuguese had shown the way to the East by sea, English and Dutch traders had followed them and settled in some of the islands in the East Indies. But they did not like each other. The Dutch tried to keep as much of the trade as they could to themselves. So did the English. Once in the reign of James I the Dutch killed a number of English settlers at a place called Amboyna. They grew to hate each other more and more.

There was another reason why the English and the Dutch were enemies. The Dutch were great sailors; their ships carried goods everywhere from one country to another. The English wanted cargoes brought to England to be carried in English ships, and in 1651 a law was made in England which said that, in future, cargoes brought to England must come either in English ships or in ships belonging to the country from which the cargoes came. This was a great blow to Dutch shipping. The Dutch were very angry and we had several wars with them.

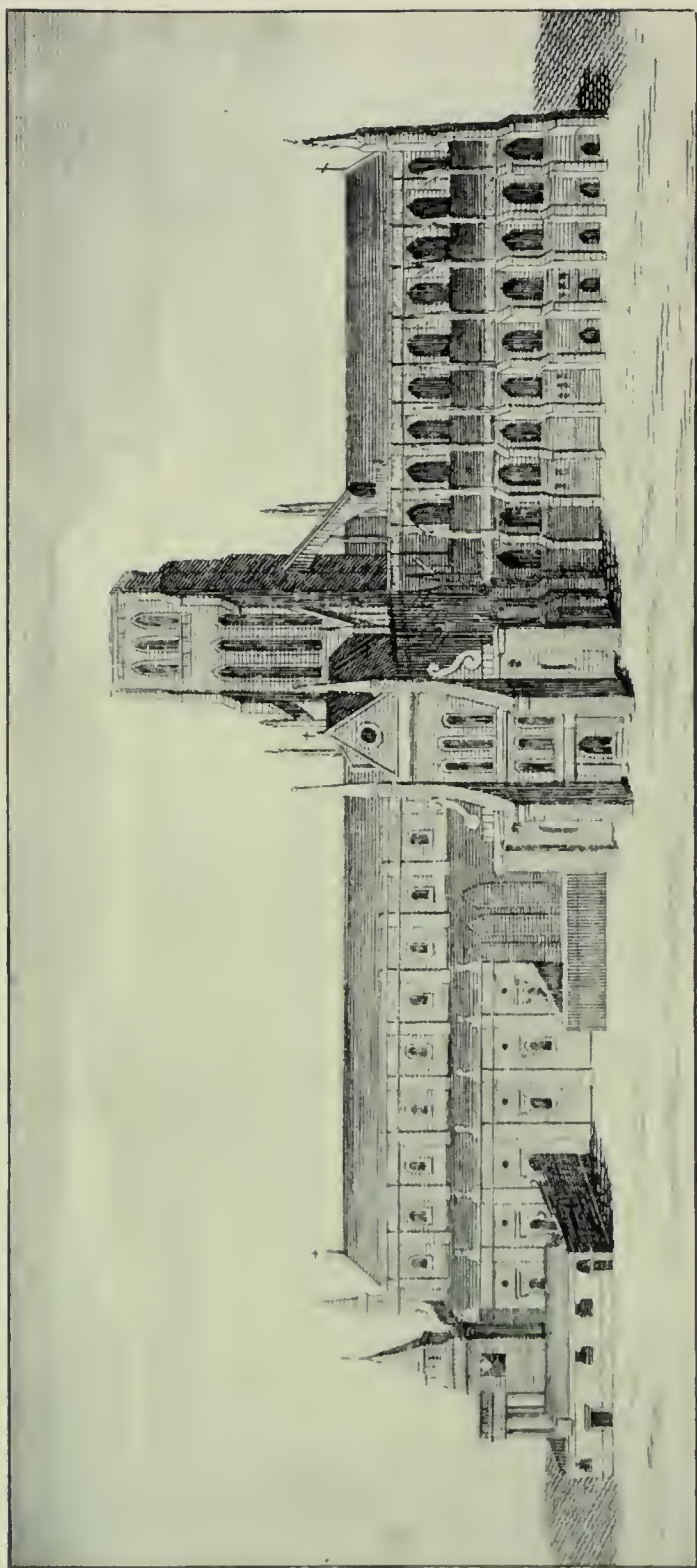
Blake had a hard task in fighting the Dutch at sea. Not only were the Dutch clever sailors but they had a very great and brave admiral called Tromp. The first battle was off the coast of Kent. Tromp had a bigger fleet than Blake. He had eighty-five ships; Blake had only forty-five. But Blake decided to fight. When the battle started Blake found that his difficulties



An English ship of war in the time of Cromwell

were even greater than he expected, for twenty of his ships would not fight. Their captains would not obey the admiral's orders; they said they had not enough men on board to work the ships. So Blake had to fight with only twenty-five against eighty-five and against a great admiral. Tromp won the day. Blake lost six ships and had to retreat with the rest to the coast.

There is a story told that after his victory Tromp sailed down the Channel with a broom fixed to the head of his ship's mast. This was to show that he was going to sweep the English from the sea. The story is



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL AFTER 1561

It was burnt to the ground in the Great Fire of 1666

not likely to be true for Tromp was not a boastful man.

At another time there was a fight off the south coast. Blake met Tromp's war fleet when it was sailing along with some Dutch merchant ships. This time Blake had more ships—nearly as many as the Dutch. After a time Tromp saw that his gunpowder was running short, and, as he was anxious to protect the merchant ships and bring them safe to Holland, he tried to make for home. Blake pursued him and captured or destroyed several Dutch ships. Tromp managed to get most of the merchant ships safely home, but Blake had really won the victory. During that fight Blake was so badly wounded that for some time he was not able to put to sea again. While he was recovering, the other English admirals defeated Tromp again. In the fight Tromp was struck by a bullet. "It is all over," he said, as he fell. He was carried down to his cabin below and there he died. Soon after his death the Dutch made peace for a time and had to accept the English law against their shipping.

Blake had also to fight against pirates in the Mediterranean. Pirates had been coming from Tunis in North Africa and attacking English traders. So Blake sailed to Tunis and demanded from the ruler of Tunis that money should be paid for the damage done by the pirates. "There are our castles upon which you may do your worst," said the ruler of Tunis, pointing to the forts guarding his town. But Blake's guns fired at the forts, and damaged them badly. Then he sent ships into the harbour, where they destroyed the pirate ships which were sheltering there.

12. THE YEAR OF WONDERS

The Plague and the Dutch War

When Charles II was king there was living in London a man called Samuel Pepys. Pepys kept a diary, and every day he noted down what he had been doing or anything that specially interested him. The diary is full of many little unimportant things about himself, like these: "February 7. At home for dinner. It being Shrove Tuesday, had some very good fritters." "May 5. After dinner, to Mr. Evelyn's; he being abroad, we walked in his garden, and a lovely noble ground he hath indeed. And among other rarities, a hive of bees, so as, being hived in glass, you may see the bees making their honey and combs mighty pleasantly. This day, after I had suffered my hair to grow long, in order to wearing it, I find the convenience of periwigs is so great, that I have cut off all short again, and will keep to periwigs."

But sometimes Pepys wrote about most important things. On 30th May, 1665, he wrote: "Great fears of the sickness here in the City, it being said that two or three houses are already shut up. God preserve us all." "The sickness" was the beginning of a terrible plague which was to kill many people in London. A few days later, Pepys wrote: "The hottest day that ever I felt in my life. This day . . . I did in Drury Lane see two or three houses marked with a red cross upon the doors, and 'Lord have mercy upon us!'



A Lady and Gentleman in the days of Charles II

written there." The plague was growing worse. On 30th July, Pepys said: "It was a sad noise to hear our bell to toll and ring so often to-day, either for deaths or burials." All people who could left London and went into the country. In the middle of August Pepys wrote: "How sad a sight it is to see the streets empty of people . . . two shops in three, if not more, generally shut up." It was a terrible time. Thousands of people died—so many that the bodies had to be collected in carts. The carters went along the streets, shouting: "Bring out your dead; bring out your dead," and the bodies were taken—many together—and buried in great pits.

After the summer the plague grew less; by the next year everyone knew that the worst was over. But the next year—1666—turned out to be a most exciting year. A man called John Dryden wrote a poem about it afterwards, which he called “*Annus Mirabilis, The Year of Wonders.*”

One of the exciting things that happened in this year was another fierce sea-battle with the Dutch. For again there was war with the Dutch. They were still anxious to prevent the English becoming strong at sea. Both Tromp and Blake were dead, but the Dutch had an admiral called de Ruyter who was quite as great as Tromp. The commander of the English fleet was Monk. Another of the English admirals was Prince Rupert—the king’s cousin.

Samuel Pepys was specially interested in the war with the Dutch, for he worked in the office in London which looked after the navy. One day in June, news came that a great fight was taking place in the Straits of Dover between the North Foreland and the coast of France. People had heard the firing of the guns. For the first two days of the battle Monk had fewer ships than the Dutch, and was being driven down the Channel. Then Rupert came to his rescue with more ships. For two more days the fight went on. At last both the Dutch and the English fleets had been so damaged that they had to stop fighting, but the Dutch had won the victory, for Monk lost more ships and men than they did. At another time de Ruyter sailed into the estuary of the Thames and set fire to some English ships at Chatham. The light of the fires could

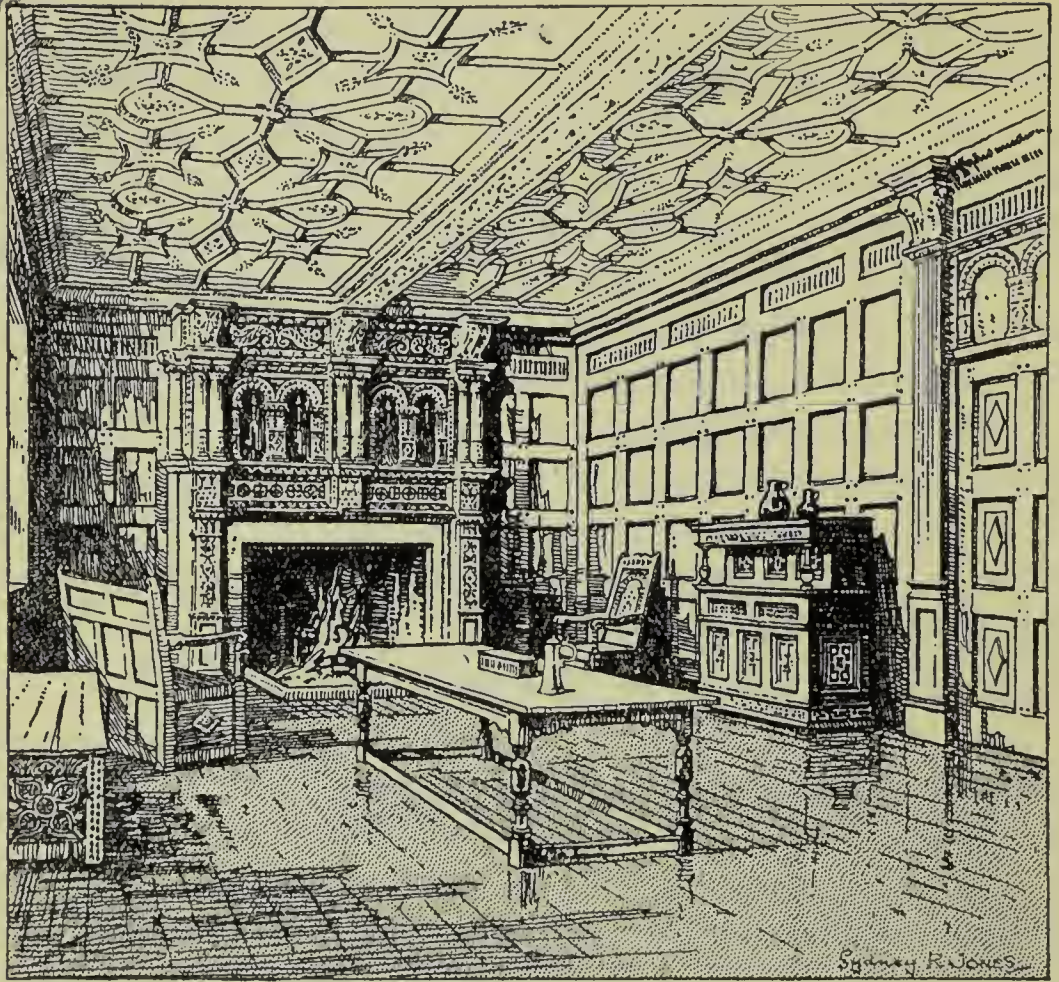
be seen from London. The Londoners were alarmed. People were ashamed that the Dutch had managed to get so far, and they feared that they might reach London itself.

Although there were English victories as well as Dutch, the Dutch were never completely beaten at sea. But before long the English began to grow the stronger. The Dutch had to give all their attention to defending their little country against another enemy altogether. For the great king of France, Louis XIV, wanted to conquer Holland, and the Dutch were less able to be strong rivals of the English. Indeed, they began to think of the English as their friends who might help them against France.

The Great Fire

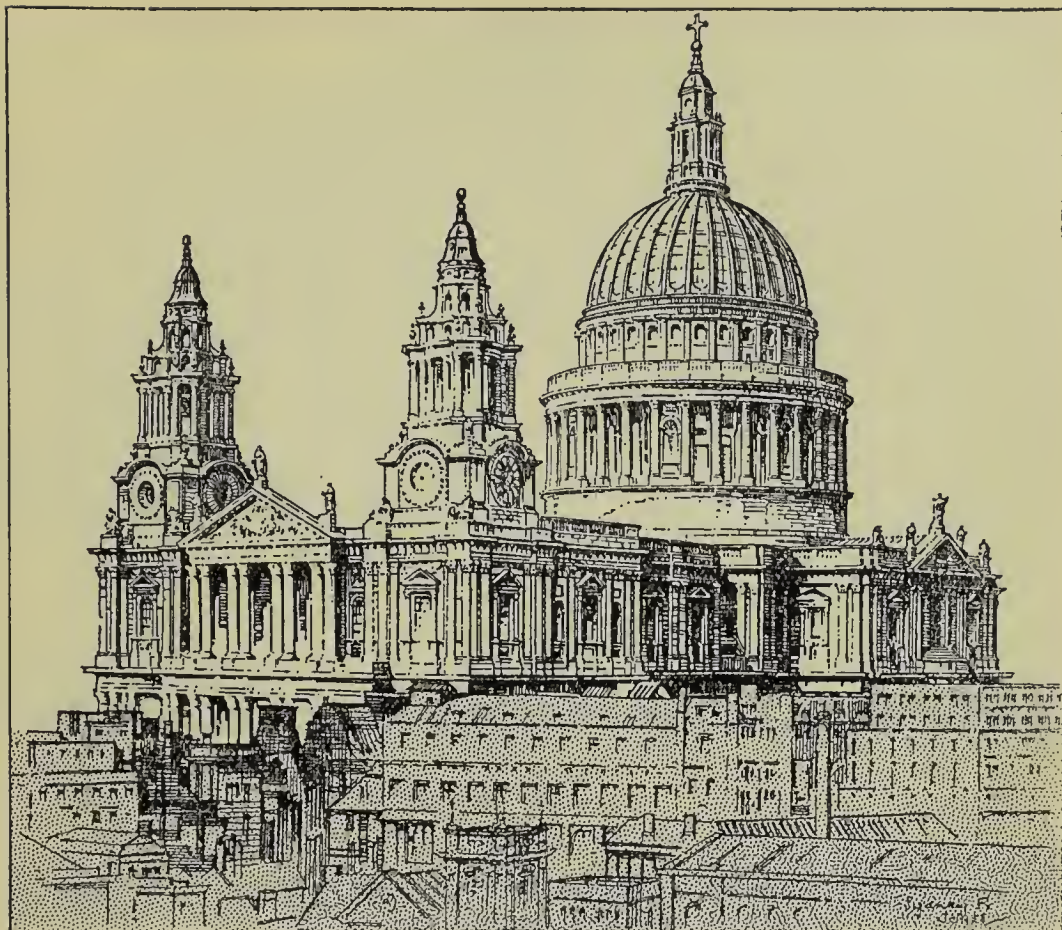
Another very exciting event took place in 1666. One September night at two o'clock in the morning Samuel Pepys was wakened by his servants and told that there was a great fire in the city of London. He got up to see it, but it seemed far off, and he went back to bed again. When he got up later at seven o'clock, he put on his clothes and went out into the city. Then he discovered that the fire was enormous. He heard that it had broken out in a baker's house in a place where it spread quickly because the streets were so narrow. The flames could easily cross the streets, and as there was so much wood in the houses they burned very quickly.

Pepys saw people taking their belongings from their



Inside a house of Wren's time. The walls are panelled in oak and the ceiling is modelled in plaster

houses and putting them in the churches, which were built of stone; they thought they would be safe there. He saw booksellers piling their books in St. Paul's Cathedral. But the fire was so great and the heat so intense, that soon all kinds of buildings were destroyed. Pepys had some valuable papers about the navy. At first he did not know what to do with them. Then he took them to the garden of a friend who lived some distance from the city, and buried them in the ground.



St. Paul's Cathedral

The fire raged for several days. Pepys watched it from a distance. He wrote in his diary: "It was extremely dreadful, for it looks just as if it was at us, and the whole heaven on fire." Then people started blowing up houses near where the fire was coming in order to prevent it spreading. At last it was checked and stamped out, but the centre of London was quite destroyed. Hundreds of houses had been burned, and eighty-nine churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral.

For four years people were building new houses,



The Great Fire. Old S

but it took longer to rebuild the churches. A great architect called Sir Christopher Wren designed plans for several new churches, and by far the most important of them was the new St. Paul's Cathedral, which stands in the centre of London to-day.

The St. Paul's Cathedral built by Wren is different from most of the other big English cathedrals. The other old cathedrals and churches in England, like Durham Cathedral, Canterbury Cathedral, and Westminster Abbey, are much older than St. Paul's. They were built long before the days of Queen Elizabeth, and at that time in England, and in most parts of Europe, churches were made with pointed arches and pointed windows. St. Paul's is different; unlike these older build-



St. Paul's can be seen in flames

ings, it has a huge dome, and it has no pointed arches.

The older kind of building was called "Gothic", but in the sixteenth century the Italians began to make a new kind of building which they thought was more like that of the ancient Romans. They made the tops of the windows round or flat, not pointed, and they sometimes built domes. Often their buildings had a row of pillars on the outside, usually at the front. Other countries followed their example, and as early as the time of Queen Elizabeth people had begun the new style of buildings in England. Wren was one of the greatest of the architects who imitated the Italians. His cathedral of St. Paul's is very like the great cathedral of St. Peter's in Rome.

To-day, architects imitate both these kinds of buildings as well as many others. In many towns one can see churches built in the "Gothic" style, and churches built in the Italian style.

John Bunyan

In 1666—the year of wonders—there was living in a prison in Bedford a man of whom Samuel Pepys and John Dryden knew nothing. His name was John Bunyan. He was a Puritan, and during the rule of Oliver Cromwell he had gone about preaching. But after Cromwell's death, when Charles II came back, Bunyan began to have a hard time. For when Charles II became king, the Puritan rule of the church came to an end. The Church of England became like what it is to-day; the bishops were brought back, and the Book of Common Prayer was used in the services. Many of the Puritans had become so tired of Cromwell's rule that they accepted the restoration of the bishops and the Prayer Book. But the more eager Puritans, among whom was Bunyan, refused to do so. As they did not like the ways and the services of the Church of England, they wanted churches of their own. Because they would not "conform" to the Church of England, they were called "Nonconformists".

At this time many people still thought that there should be only one kind of church in the country, and that everyone should worship in the same way. This was why Bunyan began to have a bad time. Nonconformists were forbidden to preach and to have services, and were punished if they did so. Bunyan was put in

prison in Bedford, and was kept there for twelve years—from 1660 to 1672. A few years later he was again put in prison for six months.

It was when Bunyan was in prison that he wrote *The Pilgrim's Progress*—the book which has made his name famous. It is the story of a man called Christian, who travelled from the City of Destruction to the Heavenly City, and on the way had most exciting adventures. He nearly sank in a bog called the Slough of Despond; he just managed to escape from Giant Despair; and he

had a terrible fight with a horrible fiend called Apollyon, before he was able to reach the end of his journey.

The language of *The Pilgrim's Progress* is very like the language of the Bible. Bunyan had read the Bible so much that he could not help imitating its language.

For many years the three books most widely known among ordinary people in England were the *Bible*, the *Book of Common Prayer*, and the *Pilgrim's Progress*. They are all written in very much the same kind of language, and they have, perhaps, done more than any others to form the speech we use to-day.



Pilgrim

13. THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

The Rule of James II

Charles II was king during the time of the Plague and the Fire. When he became king in 1660, he was tired of a life of escapes and adventures, and he said he "would never go on his travels again". So he was careful not to offend people as his father had offended them. He wanted to be powerful, but he remembered what had happened to his father, and he was always very careful what he did. He was such a clever man that he often got what he wanted without making people angry. When he died in 1685, his brother, James II, became king.

James was rash and foolish. He began to make people angry almost at once. He, too, remembered what had happened to Charles I, but when anyone objected to anything he did, he exclaimed that he would not give way. He said that his father had given way and had been beheaded. But James forgot that his father had been beheaded not because he gave way, but because he could not be trusted.

First of all James quarrelled with Parliament. He was so determined to make himself powerful that he paid no attention to what Parliament said. He dissolved Parliament, and began to rule without it.

Then James became friendly with Louis XIV, the great king of France. He would never need to ask Parliament for money, for Louis promised to give him

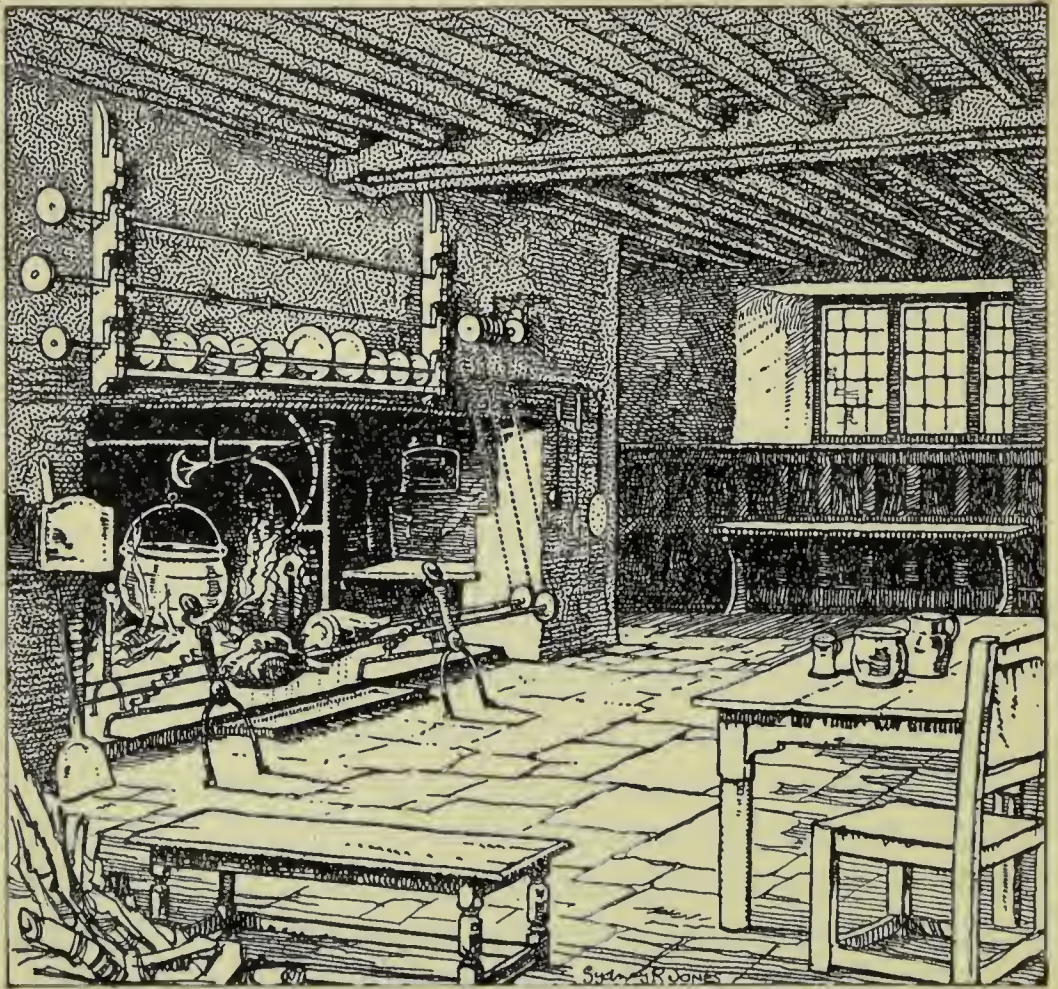
money. But quite a number of Englishmen did not want to be friendly with France. They thought France was becoming too powerful. Louis XIV was hoping to make great conquests, and some people thought it would be better now to be friendly with the Dutch, and to help them to resist the French.

What annoyed people most about James was his attempt to bring back the Roman Catholic religion. He got rid of his Protestant advisers, and appointed Roman Catholics to rule the country under him.

People's dislike of James reached its height after what is known as the trial of the Seven Bishops. James had ordered the clergy to read a certain declaration in their churches. Most of them refused to do so, and the Archbishop of Canterbury along with six other bishops asked James's permission not to read it. James was a tyrant: he thought only of what he wanted. He never considered what other people wanted. If he ordered something to be done, it must be done, even if everyone else disliked it. He said to the bishops: "This is rebellion." He told them that in questioning his authority, they were rebelling, and he ordered them to be tried for this. All London waited eagerly to hear what would happen at the trial, and when the jury said "Not guilty" everyone except James was delighted.

William of Orange

After the trial of the Bishops, people became more and more opposed to the rule of James, and a message was sent to William of Orange, the ruler of



A kitchen of the seventeenth century. Notice how they roasted food in front of the fire

Holland, asking him to come and rescue England from its tyrannous king. William was James's son-in-law, for he had married James's daughter Mary, and he was also a Protestant. He sailed from Holland and landed at Torbay. James prepared to fight, but he found he had very few who would fight for him. His soldiers deserted; his general, John Churchill, went over to William's side. Even his other daughter Anne left him. "God help me," he exclaimed, "my own

children have forsaken me." He decided to flee. He would get Louis XIV to help him to recover the throne for him. First of all he planned the escape of his wife and his little baby son. There was a French nobleman living in London, and James sent for him and asked him to take them to France. He said to him: "I confide to you my Queen and my son; everything must be risked to carry them to France."

When his wife and son had gone, James prepared to escape himself. He slipped out of the palace in the middle of the night and got someone to row him across the Thames. Then he fled to the coast, where he was to get a boat to take him to France. But he was discovered and brought back to London. William did not want James to be kept in England. He knew that it would be easier to get himself made king if James escaped to France. Then there would be no need for fighting, and no one would fight for a king who had deserted his country and showed that he meant to conquer it with French help. So James was not carefully watched. He was allowed to escape to France.

After James had gone Parliament made William and Mary king and queen. William promised not to do many things without Parliament's consent. From this time the king was never so powerful: he never tried to rule without Parliament.

Louis XIV and the Battle of Blenheim

James's greatest friend and William's greatest enemy was Louis XIV, the king of France. Louis

wanted James to become king of England again, and he allowed James and his little son to live in France.

Louis XIV was a very powerful king. His court was the most magnificent in Europe. He had great French soldiers to fight for him. All Europe was afraid of him. William was his special enemy, for William knew that Louis was intending to become still more powerful, and that he was a danger both to England and Holland—the two countries which William was ruling.

It was not long before Louis showed how dangerous he was. The king of Spain died, and one of Louis's grandsons was made the new king of Spain. This meant that France would become stronger than ever, for Louis would have the chance of securing the help of Spain to get what he wanted. Then James II died. When he was dying, Louis came to his room, and said to him: "I have something of great moment to communicate to Your Majesty. I come to tell Your Majesty that, whenever it shall please God to take you from us, I will be to your son what I have been to you, and will acknowledge him as King of England, Scotland, and Ireland."

The English were annoyed. They did not want James II's son as king, especially as he was a Roman Catholic, like his father. William and England now got ready to fight France. War was certain. Holland and Austria were also getting ready to attack France.

One day, when William was preparing for the war, his horse stumbled on a mole-hill and William was thrown off and broke his collar bone. He never re-

covered, and about a fortnight later he died. His wife Mary had died several years before, and now her sister Anne—James II's younger daughter—became queen. So Anne began to reign at a very dangerous time, for she became queen just when the great war with Louis XIV was starting.

The war lasted for a long time. The soldier who took William's place as commander of the English was John Churchill, the Duke of Marlborough, and he proved to be one of the greatest soldiers England has ever had. He was the victor in a battle which is one of the most famous in history.

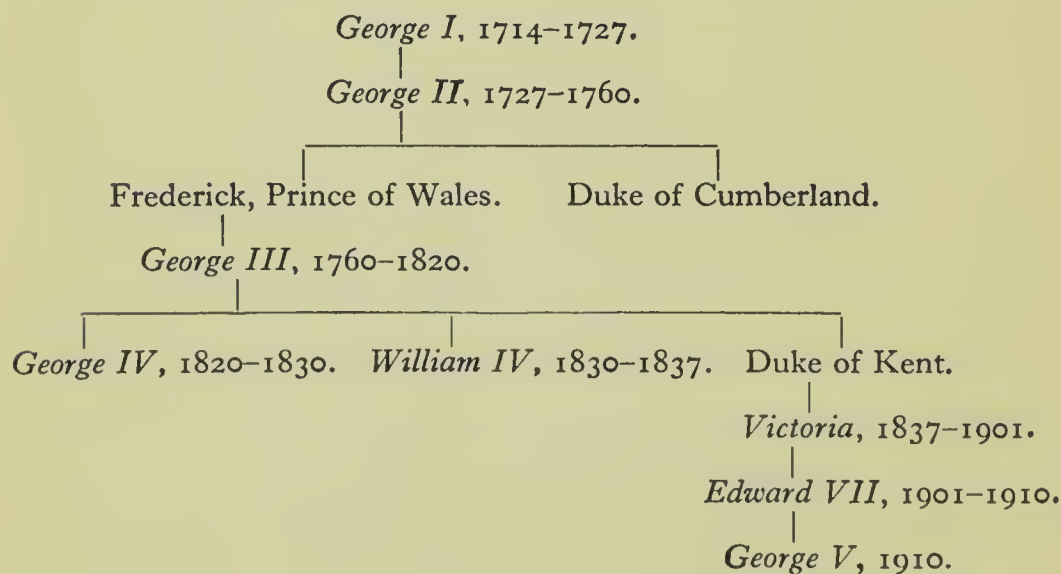
In the year 1704 Marlborough and his army were protecting Holland, when he heard that Louis was sending an army through Germany against Vienna, the capital of Austria. If Vienna fell, it would be a great triumph for France; it would probably mean that France would win the war. Marlborough quickly led his army into Germany and managed to get in front of the French on the road to Vienna near a place called Blenheim. He had by this time met Prince Eugene, the Austrian commander. Marlborough knew he must fight; he knew the fate of Vienna depended on his victory. Yet the French were in a better position, and had a bigger army. "I know the dangers of the case," Marlborough said, "but a battle is absolutely necessary." He was a wonderful general, and he succeeded in winning a great victory. Vienna was saved, and the French were checked. The French general Tallard was captured. When he was brought to Marlborough he said: "Your grace has beaten the

best troops in the world." "I hope," Marlborough replied, "that you except the troops which defeated them."

The war went on for several years, but at last Louis was forced to agree that he would no longer help Prince James, James II's son. He promised, too, that though his grandson remained king of Spain, France and Spain would be kept separate under separate kings.

The Hanoverians

George I, 1714-1727	William IV, 1830-1837
George II, 1727-1760	Victoria, 1837-1901
George III, 1760-1820	Edward VII, 1901-1910
George IV, 1820-1830	George V, 1910



14. THE JACOBITES

When Queen Anne died the new king was George I. William III had been a Dutchman; George I was a German, and was the ruler of a part of Germany called Hanover. He could not speak English. One of his most important ministers in England could not speak German, and they had to talk to each other in Latin. George became king of England because he was the great-grandson of James I. James I's daughter had married a German prince, and George was their grandson.

Some people thought that Prince James, the son of James II, should be king instead of George, but most people did not want any more Stewarts to rule the country. That was why George was made king. The people who did want James were called Jacobites, for the Latin name for James is Jacobus. George's friends called James the "Pretender", because he claimed to be what he was not—the king of England. In the year 1715 James's friends in Scotland started a rebellion hoping to make him king.

The Earl of Mar, who was a Jacobite, collected an army of Highlanders to fight for James. He marched south with them from Aberdeenshire and captured the town of Perth. But the Duke of Argyle was at Stirling with an army for King George, and Mar could not get farther south without fighting. A battle was fought and, though neither side won, the Jacobites lost heart. James, their king, had not arrived. He did not reach

Scotland until after this battle, and by that time many of the Jacobite soldiers had deserted. James was not the kind of leader to encourage his men; he seemed to be gloomy and silent. And not long after he arrived he saw he would have to flee from the country. He went to Italy, and lived there for many years.

This rebellion was called the "Fifteen", because it took place in the year 1715. Thirty years later, in 1745, the Jacobites made another attempt to bring James back as king. This was called the "Forty-Five". The king was now George II, George I's son. The leader of the Jacobites was not James himself, but his son Charles. Charles's enemies called him the Young Pretender, and his father the Old Pretender; his friends thought of him as "Bonnie Prince Charlie".

Prince Charles was now twenty-five. He was a more active and a more likeable man than his father. When he talked to people he was very pleasant and charming. He landed in the north-west of Scotland, and many chiefs of the Highland clans brought their clansmen to fight for him. One of them said: "I will follow you to the death were there no other to draw a sword in your cause."

At first Charles seemed to get on very well. He marched south, captured Edinburgh, and defeated an army sent against him at Prestonpans near Edinburgh. Then he led his army into England and went as far south as Derby. People in London were very excited, for they thought Charles might soon be there. But Charles never got farther than Derby. He had hoped that many more people would come to help

him and join his army, but he found few friends in the lowlands of Scotland or in England. Most people were against having a Stewart king again, and the king's armies were gathering against him on all sides. So Charles and his Highlanders had to retreat from Derby and go back to Scotland. The king's army under George II's son, the Duke of Cumberland, chased them right up to the north of Scotland. A battle was fought at Culloden Moor, near Inverness, and Charles was defeated.

Charles had to flee. For several months he wandered in the West Highlands of Scotland. He had many narrow escapes from being captured. A large sum of money was offered to anyone who would help to capture him, but the Highlanders would not give him away. He was helped to escape by a lady called Flora Macdonald. At one time he had to go disguised as her servant, and he was dressed to look like a woman. He was nearly discovered, for someone said that he took very big steps for a woman.

At last he got a boat which took him to France. Afterwards he went to Italy, and he died there more than forty years later in 1788. Charles had a brother Henry who was a Cardinal in the Roman Catholic Church, and when Charles died the staunch Jacobites who had called him "Charles III", now called Henry, "Henry IX", but there was no chance of Henry's coming back to England. He died in 1807—the last of the Stewarts.

15. THE COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (1)

The Beginnings of the Colonies

We have read how Sir Walter Raleigh's Virginian colony had been a failure. But Raleigh had not given up hope. He had said: "I shall still live to see it an English nation." And some years later, when James I was king and Raleigh was in prison, another expedition of colonists went out to Virginia. To begin with, they had great difficulties. Often they were attacked by the natives of North America, who were known as the Red Indians. These Indians were great fighters—brave

but savage. When they fought their aim was to cut off the tops of their enemies' heads. The Indian who could bring back the most "scalps" was thought to be the best warrior.

The leader of the English colonists was Captain John Smith, and he wrote an account of their adventures. He tells us how at one time he was captured by the Indians. He was going to



Captain John Smith

be tortured and put to death, when the young daughter of the Indian chief came and begged that his life might be spared. Her father granted her wish. Smith was set free, and for a time the Indians were quite friendly to the English.

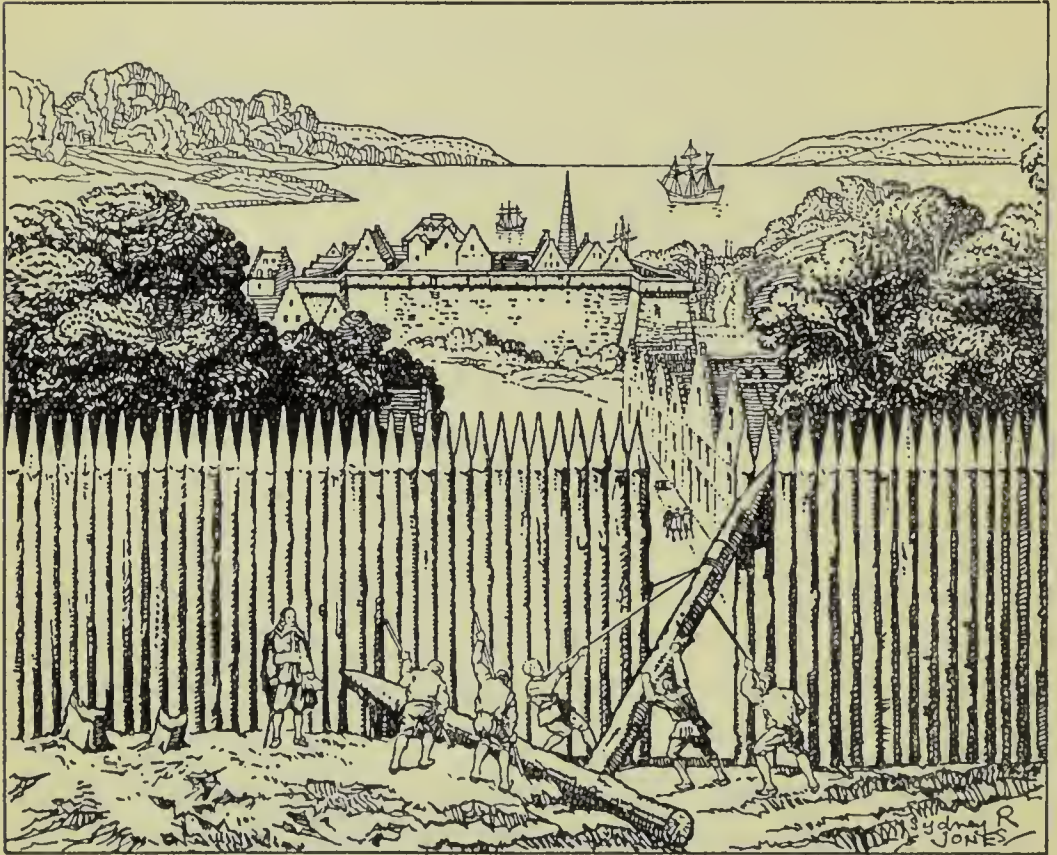
Some of the colonists were lazy; they would not work hard and cultivate the land for growing crops. There was danger of the colony failing for lack of food. But Smith was a stern leader, and did his best to make the people work. One day there was an accident. Some gunpowder exploded, and Smith was so badly hurt that he had to come home to England. After he left, the colonists lost heart. They were only prevented from sailing back to England by the arrival of more ships with a new supply of provisions.

At last, after several years of great hardships, the colony began to be a success. More people came out to settle in it. The climate was good for growing tobacco, and soon Virginia was famous for the tobacco it sent to England.

Not long after the founding of Virginia another North American colony was begun. Some of the Puritans who disliked the rule of James I decided to leave England. They wanted to find a place where they could worship in their own way. For a time they lived in Holland among the Dutch, but they were anxious to have a country of their own. In 1620 they sailed from Europe in a ship called the *Mayflower*, and landed in America far to the north of Virginia. During Charles I's reign, a large number of Puritans followed, and soon there were several Puritan colonies all near

each other. This country, where the Puritans settled, was called New England; its most important colony was Massachusetts.

But it was not only the Puritans who went to



New York looked something like this early in the seventeenth century. The men are building a wall of logs to keep out hostile Indians.

America. The Virginians were not Puritans, and there was a colony called Maryland where there were a great many Roman Catholics.

There were others besides the English who made colonies in North America. Some of the Dutch had settled in the land between Virginia and New England, but after the war with the Dutch in Charles II's reign,

this land was given to England. Its chief town had been called New Amsterdam. Its name was now changed to New York, and to-day New York is the biggest city in the world except London.

In Charles II's reign some more people who were persecuted at home for their religious opinions went to North America. They were known as the Quakers. Their leader was William Penn, and the colony he started was named after him and called Pennsylvania. The Quakers hated war, and they tried to live at peace with the Indians of America. They hated persecution too, and they allowed other people to worship as they pleased. So, before long, many others as well as Quakers came to live in Pennsylvania.

Raleigh's dream had come true. There was now an English nation on the other side of the Atlantic. By the middle of the eighteenth century there were thirteen of these English North American colonies. The most important were Virginia, Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania. From this time it will be better to speak of these colonies as *British* rather than *English*; for England and Scotland were now one country, and both Englishmen and Scotsmen were living in these colonies. The French had also come to North America. They had sailed up the river St. Lawrence and settled at Quebec and Montreal, in the country that is now called Canada. Then it was called New France. The French had also settled at the mouth of the great river, the Mississippi, in the south of North America. There they started a colony which they called Louisiana after their king, Louis XIV.



Map showing the thirteen English North American colonies

Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, and General Braddock

Benjamin Franklin was born in Massachusetts in 1706. His elder brother was a printer, and when Benjamin was twelve, he told his father he wanted to be a printer too. So he became his brother's apprentice, and worked under him for a number of years. The brothers did not get on very well together, and so Benjamin decided he would go and find work in New York. In order to pay for his journey he sold some of his books, and then he sailed off to New York. But as no one at New York wanted to employ a printer, he went on to Philadelphia, the chief town of Pennsylvania.

When he arrived in Philadelphia he was hungry, and though he had very little money, he had enough to buy himself some food. So he went to a baker's shop and bought three large rolls. Then he walked along the streets eating one and carrying the other two under his arms, for his pockets were stuffed with his belongings—his shirts and his stockings. A girl, standing at a door, thought he looked very funny, and laughed at him. Many years later she became his wife. After a little time he found a printer who gave him work to do.

Franklin was clever, and he worked hard. Before long he set up as a printer himself. He became the editor of a newspaper, and soon he was one of the most important people in Philadelphia. He was interested in experimenting with electricity, and he thought out

a way of stopping lightning from setting fire to buildings. The first lightning-conductor was made by him and used on his own house in Philadelphia.

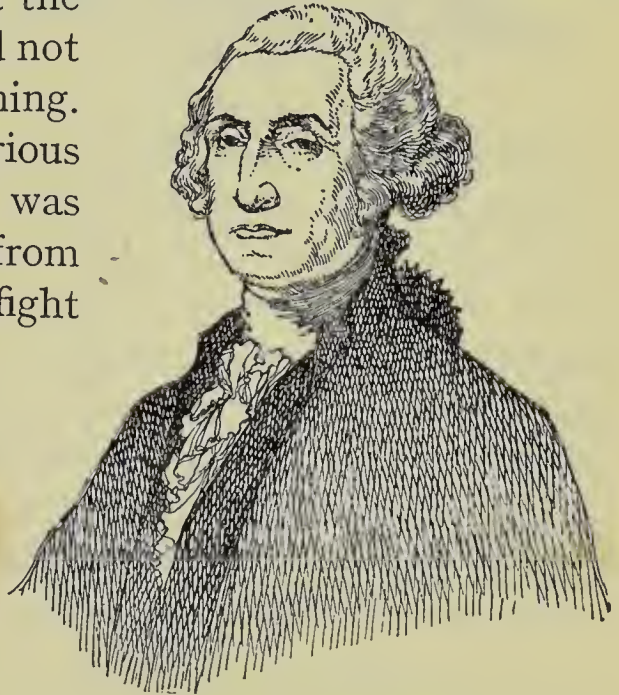
At this time people were wondering whether the British or the French would become the most important people in North America. To the west of the British colonies lay the rich valley of the river Ohio, which flows into the Mississippi. Few people but Indians ever went there, though colonists from Virginia and Pennsylvania were beginning to go over the mountains to the Ohio to trade with the Indians. Then the French began to come to the Ohio from Canada and the Great Lakes in the north. They were anxious to keep the British colonists out of this land. They wanted to stop the British from colonizing farther west, and they hoped to make a great French country stretching from Canada to Louisiana down the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi.

Both British and French claimed the Ohio country as their own. Then French soldiers came and made forts in it, and drove out any British traders they met. So the governor of Virginia sent a young Virginian called George Washington to tell the French that they must not build forts there, and that the land belonged to Great Britain. The French commander received Washington courteously, but he had no intention of giving way. On the way back through the lonely country Washington had an adventurous journey. In one place he and his companion came to a river which they expected to be so frozen that they could cross on foot. But the ice was melting, and they had to make

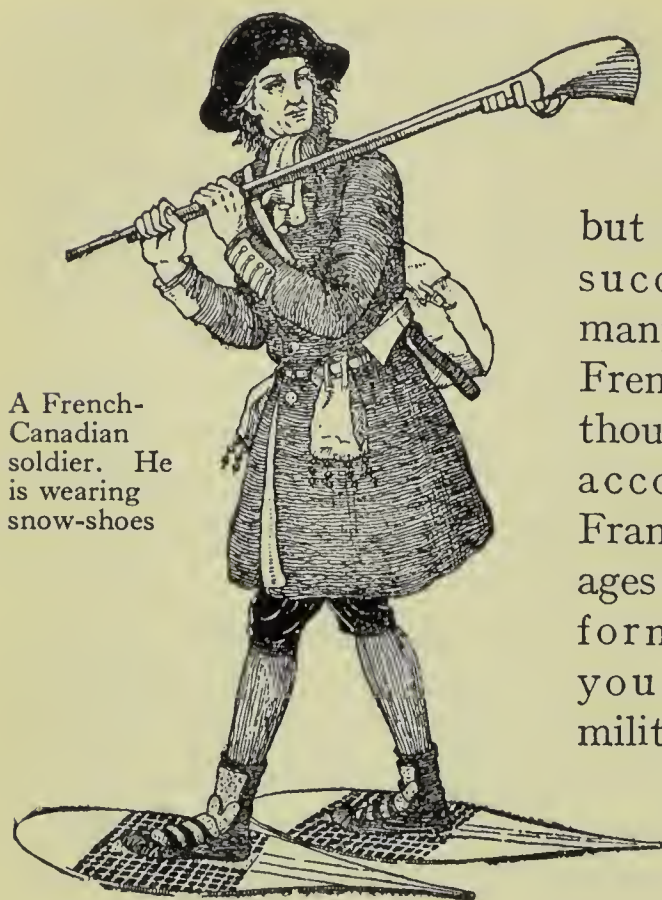
a raft. On the way across, drifting ice struck the raft, and Washington was knocked overboard into the icy river. Fortunately, he was able to catch hold of the raft and drag himself out. But the ice, sweeping down the river, prevented them reaching the opposite bank. They were carried on to an island where they had to spend the night. In the morning the river had frozen again, and they were able to walk across.

The French continued to claim the Ohio as theirs, and soon Washington was sent with some soldiers to resist them. But the French were too many; he was defeated, and had to retreat.

The French were now becoming dangerous, but the colonists did not realize the danger. The different colonies were jealous of each other, and though Franklin told them they must drop their quarrels with each other and unite against the French, at first they did not bother about his warning. Then matters got so serious that General Braddock was sent with soldiers from England in order to fight the French. Franklin did his best to help him. He persuaded the Pennsylvanians to bring wagons and horses to carry the provisions for Braddock's army.



George Washington



A French-
Canadian
soldier. He
is wearing
snow-shoes

Braddock was now ready to march into Ohio against the French; but he was too sure of success. There were many Indians helping the French, but Braddock thought they were of little account. He said to Franklin: "These savages may, indeed, be a formidable enemy to your raw American militia, but upon the king's regular and disciplined troops, sir, it is impossible they should make

any impression." Braddock and his army crossed the mountains and entered the enemies' country. While marching through a very wooded place they suddenly discovered that they had walked into a trap. French and Indians, well hidden by the trees, fired from all sides. The red coats of Braddock's army gave the enemy a good target. More than half of the army was killed, and the rest had to retreat as best they could. Braddock, who had led his men with great courage, was so badly wounded that he died four days after the disaster. Just before he died, he said: "We shall better know how to deal with them another time."

16. THE COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (2)

William Pitt and General Wolfe

The defeat of Braddock was the beginning of a great war with France in 1756. Soon there was fighting all over North America. A brave and clever general, called Montcalm, came from France to command the French armies and, at first, the French were victorious. The war was fought not only in America but all over the world. It was a time of great danger for the British, who were even defeated at sea, where they thought they could not be beaten.

Then came a change. At home in London a great statesman called William Pitt was put in charge of affairs. He was a man of wonderful ability. Some people thought him proud, for he once said: "I know I can save this country, and I know no other man can." But he showed that he could save the country. He was determined to win, and he made others determined to win.

Pitt knew how to use the navy. He told the admirals that they must prevent the French sending more soldiers to America, and that they must keep the seas clear for transporting British soldiers. Pitt knew a good general when he met one, and the general he chose to send against the French in America was James Wolfe. Some thought Wolfe was too young. He was only thirty-two. Some thought his health was

too bad. He was often ill, and was never at sea without being sea-sick. Some thought he was mad. When King George II heard this, he replied: "Mad, is he? Then I hope he will bite some others of my generals." For George knew that Pitt had chosen a good man.

Wolfe was to attack the French in Canada. Towards the end of June, in 1759, a fleet sailed up the St. Lawrence carrying Wolfe and his soldiers. Montcalm, the French commander, was defending the town of Quebec, which is on the north side of the river. Quebec seemed to be well protected, standing on the top of high cliffs rising steeply from the river side, and Montcalm thought his position was secure.

Wolfe succeeded in seizing the hill on the south side of the river opposite Quebec, but it seemed impossible to take such a well-defended town. Several attempts were made, and they all failed. Still, Wolfe said: "I will have Quebec if I stay here till the end of November." He knew he could not stay long after the winter had begun, because the river would freeze and it would be too difficult to get food for his army.

At last Wolfe discovered that there was a little path up the steep cliffs which protected Quebec. The path was so small and so steep that the French did not bother to guard it carefully. Wolfe made up his mind to use this path for a desperate attempt. Quietly, in the dark September night, the soldiers sailed along the foot of the cliffs. On the way a French sentry heard the boats and called out in the dark, challenging them. One of Wolfe's officers replied in French: "Provision-boats. Don't make a noise; the English will hear us."

The sentry let them pass; they landed near the foot of the little path and cautiously and with great difficulty the army made its way up the face of the cliff.

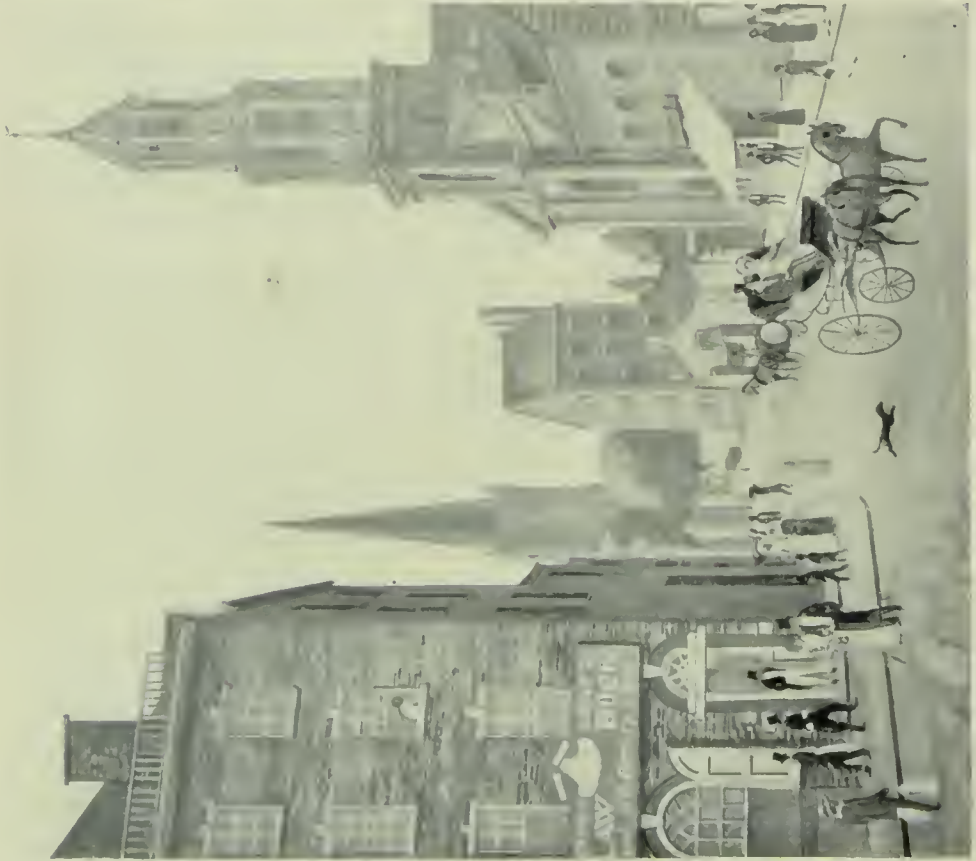
In the morning Wolfe's army was beside the town on the high land which was known as the "Heights of Abraham". When Montcalm saw them he said: "This is a serious business." He knew he must now fight to defend Quebec. The French came out, but they suffered terribly from the volley of shots fired by Wolfe's men. Many were killed; the rest fled back into the town. But

Wolfe's army had lost its leader, for Wolfe was shot during the fight. Before he died he heard that the French were flying from the field, and he murmured: "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace." Montcalm, too, was lying in Quebec mortally wounded. He asked the surgeon how long he would live. "Twelve hours, more or less." "So much the better," replied Montcalm. "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." A few days later Quebec surrendered.

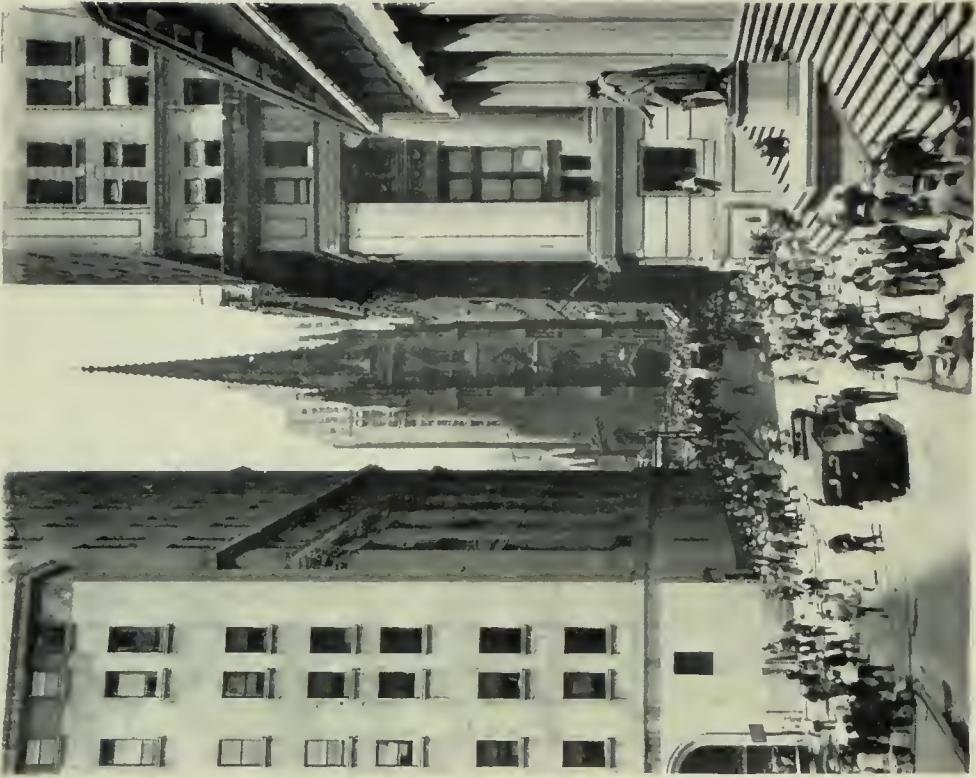
Soon after the fall of Quebec, Montreal, too, was captured. There were now British victories everywhere



General Wolfe



As it was in 1825



As it is now

WALL STREET, NEW YORK

in America. The French were completely defeated, and the French rule in America came to an end, except in the south in Louisiana. Canada became part of the British Empire, and colonists could go into the Ohio valley as much as they pleased. Beside the Ohio river, where one of the French forts had been, was founded the new town of Pittsburg, named after the great statesman who had helped to win the war.

The Boston Tea-party and the Beginning of the United States

Not long after the conquest of Canada from the French a quarrel began between Britain and the older American colonies where Franklin and Washington lived. The Americans felt that the country at home was interfering with them too much, for the king's ministers at home said that the colonies should help to pay for the war which had been fought with France, and they ordered the American colonies to pay a tax. To many it seemed quite right that this should be done, for the war had been costly; but the Americans were annoyed: they wanted to rule the colonies themselves and make their own taxes. William Pitt said the Americans were quite right, but he was not in power now, for he had had disagreements with King George III.

Benjamin Franklin went to England and warned people that the Americans would hate taxes not imposed by themselves. He was asked whether the Americans would submit to a small tax. "They will

never submit to it," he replied. But all the warnings of Pitt and Franklin did not make the ministers change their minds. A law was passed ordering the colonies to pay so much money on certain cargoes landed in American ports. These payments were called duties, and the most important duty was on tea. In 1773 ships carrying cargoes of tea arrived at Boston, the chief town of Massachusetts. But the Americans would do without tea rather than pay the duty. Some said the tea should be sent back. "The only way to get rid of it," said one man, "is to throw it overboard." One day a large number of the citizens of Boston went down to the harbour disguised as Indians. They boarded the tea-ships and emptied the cargoes of tea into the sea. This became known as the "Boston tea-party".

King George III and his ministers decided to punish Boston. They forbade ships to enter Boston harbour, and this meant that Boston would have no trade. But the people of Boston would not give way, and the other colonies united in helping Boston. Franklin had once tried to make the colonies unite against France, but now they had united against Great Britain, and both Franklin and Washington were with them. Some people at home thought the king and his ministers were making a mistake. William Pitt said: "They say you have no right to tax them without their consent: they say truly." Another Englishman, called Fox, warned the ministers: "If you persist in your right to tax the Americans, you will force them into open rebellion." This was exactly what had happened.

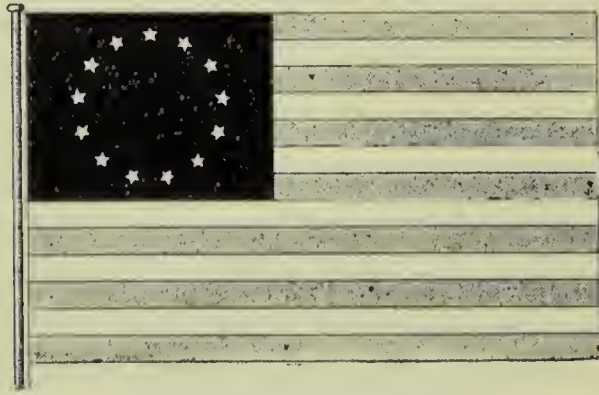
The Americans were rebelling. But the king and his ministers were determined not to give way. They thought they could easily force the Americans to submit. "It is so easy for Britain to burn all your seaport towns," someone said to Franklin. "My little property," Franklin replied, "consists of houses in those towns; you may make bonfires of them whenever you please; the fear of losing them will never alter my resolution to resist."

War began between Great Britain and her American colonies. The Americans made Washington their commander-in-chief. Then they declared that they were now an independent country, and that they would no longer obey Great Britain. Soldiers were sent from home, and it was thought they would beat the Americans; but Washington was an able general, and was not easy to defeat. Besides, Franklin sailed to Europe to get help from other countries against Great Britain. The French were eager to recover from Britain what they had lost in the recent war, and they promised to help. Spain also came to the side of the Americans.

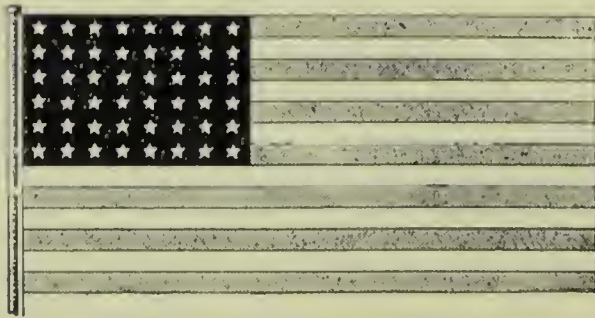
There was no one like Pitt in charge of Great Britain, and there was no general like Wolfe to fight the Americans. Things were badly managed. A French fleet crossed the Atlantic and made the position more serious by defeating a British fleet. The best of the British generals in America was Cornwallis, but he found himself caught in a place called Yorktown, with Washington's army on one side and the French fleet on the other. His army was cut off from supplies of food, and he had to surrender. There was now no hope

of defeating the Americans, though Admiral Rodney beat a French fleet in a sea-battle in the West Indies. At last peace was made. The colonies which had rebelled got what they wanted; they became independent. But the French did not recover Canada.

Great changes had taken place in North America in these last thirty years. The British had conquered Canada from the French, and then they had lost their older colonies which now became independent. The thirteen colonies became the United States of America, and George Washington was made their first president. Since that time many more states have been added to the United States. They now stretch right across North America from the Atlantic to the Pacific.



The first Stars and Stripes



The United States flag to-day

17. TWO ADVENTURERS

Robert Clive

Robert Clive was a boy who lived at a place called Market Drayton in Shropshire. He was fond of any kind of adventure—the more dangerous the better. One day the people of the place were astonished to see him climb to the top of the church spire.

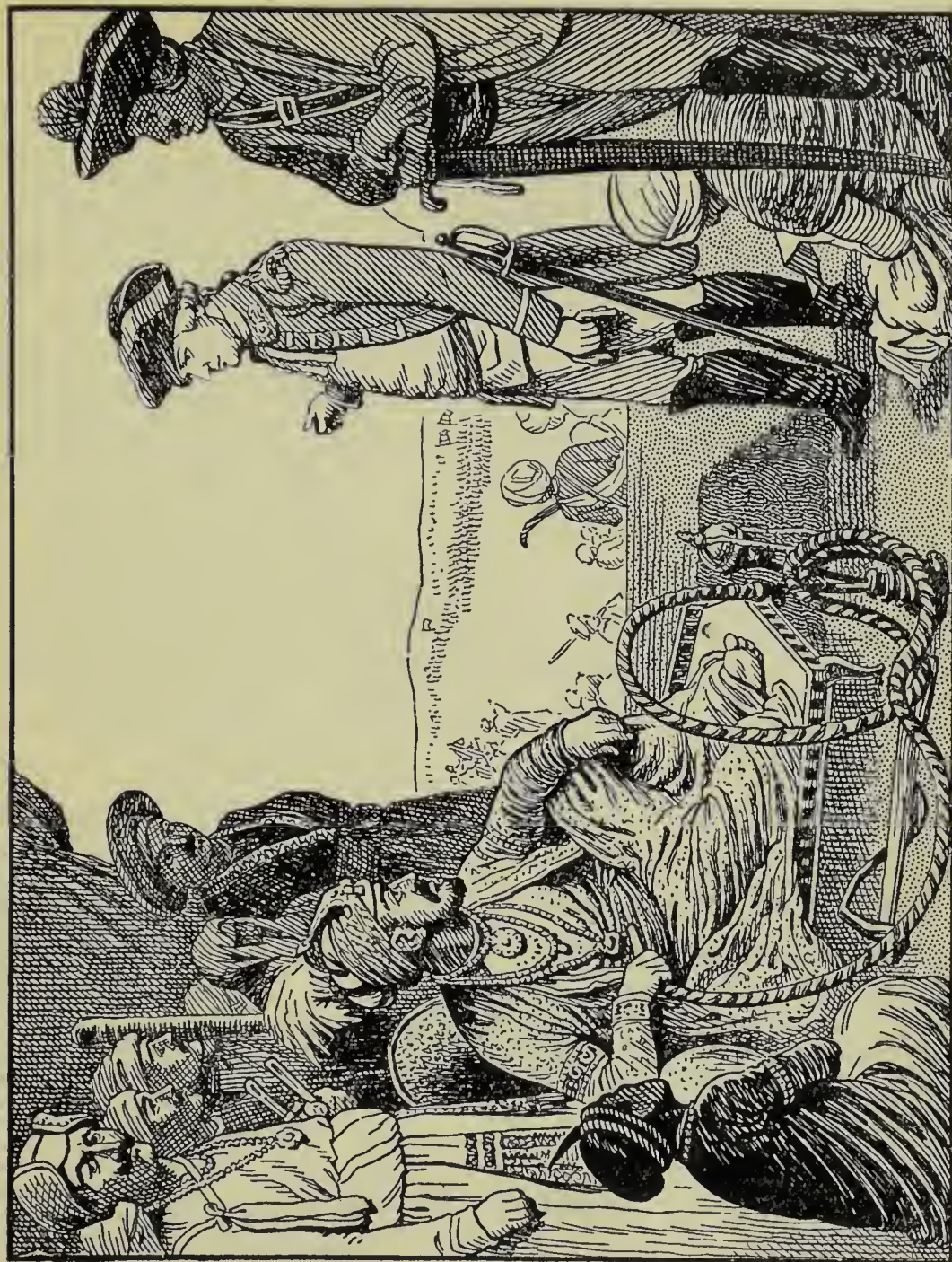
Clive became a clerk in the East India Company, which was a big trading company with settlements at places on the coast of India like Madras and Calcutta. Clive was sent to Madras, but he hated working at a desk, and he became very unhappy. Twice he tried to shoot himself, but both times his pistol did not work properly. He threw it down, exclaiming: "It appears I am destined for something; I will live."

Soon Clive had plenty of chance for adventures, for the East India Company had many enemies. Long ago India had been ruled by a great Moslem emperor called the Great Mogul, but about the time of Queen Anne his empire had declined. Different parts of it were seized by different Indian rulers. There was no order or peace in India. These new rulers were always fighting with each other, and though some of them were friendly to the East India Company, others were its enemies. There was another more dangerous enemy. Various places on the Indian coast belonged to the French, and a great Frenchman called Dupleix was hoping to make India into a French empire.

The French captured Madras, but Clive managed to escape in disguise. Some time later he led an army of British and friendly natives against the French. He seized the town of Arcot, but the French came to besiege it. Clive and his men came out and won the fight. The French had brought elephants with their soldiers, but when the firing began the elephants were frightened and ran about all over the place trampling on the French soldiers and killing them. This victory checked the French for a time.

A few years after this a terrible event took place in another part of India. Another war with the French was about to begin, and the British in Calcutta began to fortify the town. But the Indian ruler of Bengal—the country round Calcutta—did not like to see these preparations. He thought the British were getting too strong, and he exclaimed: "I will drive them totally out of my country." He marched against Calcutta, and forced the town to surrender. One hundred and forty-six Europeans were now his prisoners. He promised to treat them well, but he shut them up in a room which was afterwards called the Black Hole—a small prison cell which was meant to hold only a few people. It was a very hot June night; the prisoners were crushed together so closely that they could hardly move. They became mad with thirst and lack of air. Many were trampled to death. In the morning only twenty-three came out alive. The bodies of the rest lay dead in heaps on the floor.

Clive was at Madras when the news of the Black Hole came to him. He set off with an army to Bengal.



The Mogul reviewing the East India Company's troops in 1781.

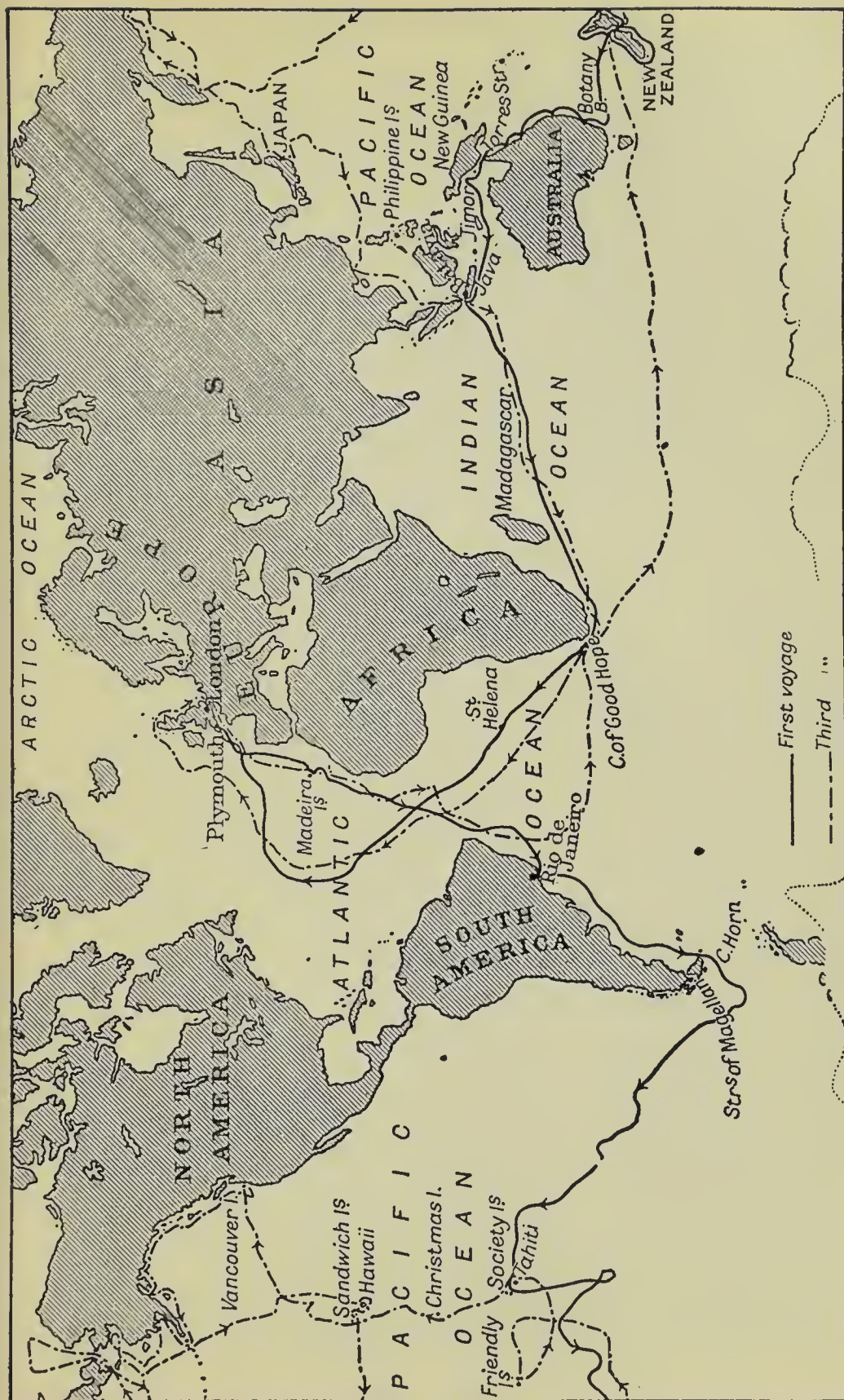
War with the French had now begun, and the ruler of Bengal declared he was on the side of the French. Clive recaptured Calcutta, and then he defeated the cruel ruler of Bengal at Plassey in 1757. A new and friendly Indian ruler was put in his place, but from this time Bengal was really governed by the British.

Soon after Clive's victory at Plassey, the French were defeated in the country near Madras. The Indian ruler of the country in the south of India called Hyderabad went over to the side of the British.

When the war between Great Britain and the American colonies was going on the French made another attempt to drive the British from India, and they were helped by several Indian rulers. But the British lands in India were saved by a great Englishman named Warren Hastings. After this time there were many wars in India. Often the different peoples of India fought against each other; sometimes they fought against the British; but more and more of India came under British rule. Sometimes the British took over parts of the country and ruled it themselves; other parts they left under Indian rulers who promised to be friendly and peaceful.

Captain Cook

When the American colonies were fighting for their independence a great English sailor, Captain James Cook, was discovering new lands. He had first sailed as a ship's boy on a boat carrying coals from Newcastle to London. Then he had joined the navy, and



Map of the world showing the tracks of Captain Cook's first and third voyages

had been with the fleet in the St. Lawrence when Wolfe's army fought the French at Quebec.

It was in 1768 that Captain Cook began the first of the voyages that have made his name famous. He sailed south in his ship, the *Endeavour*, and passed Cape Horn at the south of South America. Then he sailed eastwards and came to New Zealand, and explored the coasts of New Zealand and Australia. At this time these countries had been heard about through the discoveries of Dutchmen in the beginning of the 17th century, but no Europeans lived there. The first good maps of the New Zealand coast were those made by Cook himself. The south-east end of Australia he named New South Wales, and landing there he proclaimed that it was to belong to Great Britain. He spent some time at a bay on the east coast of Australia, for some of the men who were with him were interested in botany. They found there a large number of plants which were unknown elsewhere, and they wanted to collect specimens of them to take home. This place they called Botany Bay. Then they sailed along the dangerous north-east coast, and Cook made charts of the Great Barrier Reef, which were very useful to later sailors.

In 1772 Cook set out on another voyage, and this one lasted for three years. During the summers he sailed into the far south and explored the frozen lands of the Antarctic. In the winters, when this was impossible, he cruised about the Pacific discovering islands which had not been visited by Europeans before.

The year after his return he began his third and



The Island of Tahiti (see map, p. 135) and the strange canoes as seen by Captain Cook

last voyage in the *Discovery*. First of all he visited New Zealand and some of the Pacific Islands, but the real aim of this expedition was to find out if it was possible to sail round the north of America from the Pacific to the Atlantic. So he sailed off to the north Pacific, discovering the Sandwich Islands on the way. Farther and farther north they went, and it grew colder and colder. At last the ice compelled them to turn back, and they returned to the Sandwich Islands. Cook meant to try again, but on one of the Sandwich Islands he met his death. He had landed with a number of his men, when they were suddenly attacked by a huge crowd of the natives. Some of the others escaped, but Cook was knocked down and stabbed to death at the water's edge.

Some time after Cook's death people began to go to the great new land of Australia which he had made better known. The first to go were strange colonists. They were convicts who had been sentenced to punishment. In those days there were few prisons at home, and often convicts were sent to work in the fields in distant countries. They landed at Botany Bay, but the governor who came with them decided to move the settlement to a place a little farther north where there was a very good harbour. This place he named Sydney, and it is now the most important town in Australia.

As the years passed, other people came to Australia and new parts of the great country were explored. Then gold was discovered, and colonists followed where explorers led. Gradually Australia became one of the most important parts of the British Empire.



The Victory

18. THE WAR WITH NAPOLEON

Nelson

When the nineteenth century began there was another war with France going on. This was the last and the greatest of the wars between France and the British Empire. France was now ruled by Napoleon Bonaparte, a far greater man and a far more dangerous enemy even than Louis XIV. He made himself Emperor of the French, and he conquered a great part of Europe. He conquered Germany, Italy, and Belgium. He made one of his brothers king of Holland; he made another one king of Spain. For a time he was powerful enough to make the Emperors of Russia and Austria obey his orders. He wanted to conquer Britain, but Britain was an island and was protected by her navy.

Napoleon could not get his soldiers across to the British Isles because a British fleet guarded the Channel; but one time Napoleon thought he might get over this difficulty. To understand this it is necessary to look very carefully at the map. The biggest French fleet was at Brest on the French coast, and a British fleet under Admiral Cornwallis kept it from getting out. But Napoleon had other fleets; there was one at Cadiz. It was really a Spanish fleet, but at this time Spain had to obey Napoleon. There was another in the Mediterranean at Toulon in the south of France. This one was being watched by Nelson, the greatest of Britain's admirals. Many times Nelson had spoiled

Napoleon's plans. Once, when Napoleon had gone to conquer Egypt, Nelson had sailed after him and destroyed his fleet in a great fight which was called the Battle of the Nile. Napoleon knew that Nelson was one of his most dangerous enemies.

Napoleon ordered the admiral of his Toulon fleet, whose name was Villeneuve, to get past Nelson if he could, and to go and attack some of the islands in the West Indies which belonged to Britain. Villeneuve succeeded in escaping from Nelson. He sailed out of the Mediterranean, got some more ships from the Cadiz fleet, and crossed the Atlantic to the West Indies. Nelson discovered that Villeneuve had gone, and after looking for him in the Mediterranean, he guessed he had made for the West Indies. So Nelson followed him across the Atlantic.

Villeneuve had not time to do much at the West Indies before he heard that Nelson had arrived. So he turned back. He was obeying Napoleon's orders. He intended to get back to Europe long before Nelson. When Nelson was far off and Villeneuve back again, Cornwallis would not be able to keep the Brest fleet from coming out. Napoleon hoped he might now get control of the Channel and bring his armies across.

When Villeneuve left the West Indies Nelson again guessed where he had gone. So he sent word to the people at home that Villeneuve was probably near the Channel, and he started to bring his fleet back as quickly as he could. When his message reached London a fleet was sent against Villeneuve. It did not defeat him, but it stopped him from getting near the Brest fleet. Ville-

neuve turned south and went back to Cadiz. Meanwhile, Nelson had come back and joined Cornwallis. Napoleon's plan had failed.

Shortly after this, in October, 1805, there was fought one of the most famous of sea-battles. Nelson was outside Cadiz watching Villeneuve, but Villeneuve dreaded to come out and risk a battle. He knew that Napoleon was annoyed with him for not having been more successful before. When he sailed out he met Nelson's fleet off Cape Trafalgar. Villeneuve had thirty-three ships; Nelson had twenty-seven. But Nelson was a far greater admiral.

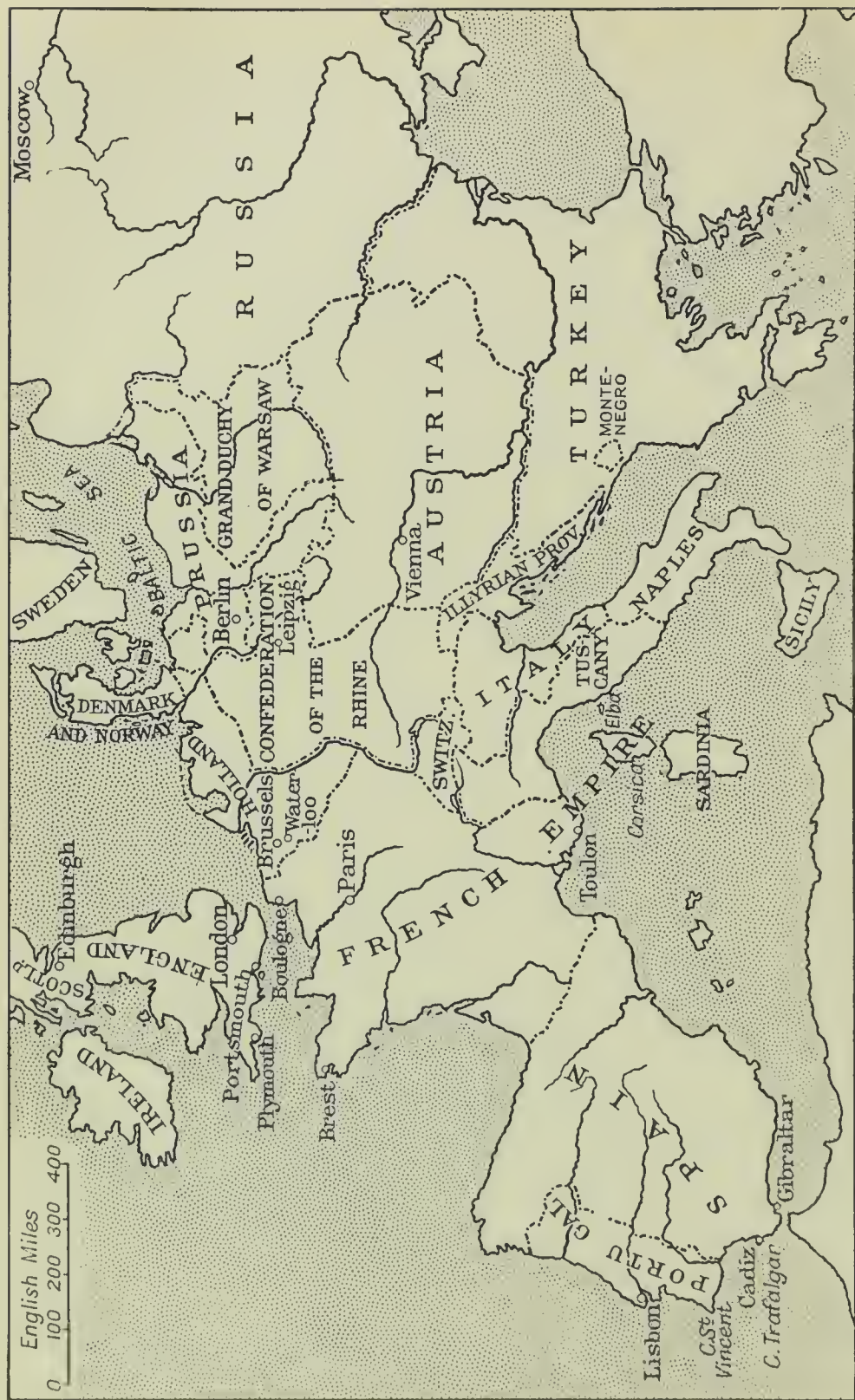
As the fleets drew near, Nelson ordered the signal to be sent out to all his men: "England expects every man to do his duty." The battle began, and several French ships were forced to surrender. Nelson was on board his own ship the *Victory*. A shot struck him and he fell on the deck, saying: "They have done for me at last." He was carried below, and lived for three hours more. During all this time the fight continued. Ship after ship was sunk or put out of action, and every now and then news of what was happening was brought to Nelson. Before he died he heard that he had won a great victory. "Now I am satisfied," he said. "Thank God, I have done my duty."

The French had lost eighteen ships, but people found it difficult to rejoice at the victory. They were so sorry that Nelson was dead.

After the victory of Trafalgar there was never any chance of Napoleon's invading Great Britain. But in Europe Napoleon was becoming more powerful. While



ADMIRAL NELSON



Europe in the time of Napoleon (1810)

Britain's navy ruled the seas, Napoleon's great armies ruled the land. The war went on for ten more years, but the victory of Trafalgar had given people hope. William Pitt, the son of the famous statesman who had sent Wolfe to America, was prime minister at the time of Trafalgar. "England," he said, "has saved herself by her exertions, and will, as I trust, save Europe by her example."

The Downfall of Napoleon

After Napoleon had seen that it was impossible to land his soldiers on the shores of England, he decided to attack his enemies another way. He would starve them out. So he forbade the other European countries to trade with the British Isles. But the Spanish were becoming tired of Napoleon's rule; they wanted to govern their country themselves, and after a time they started to fight against him and won one or two victories. British armies under the Duke of Wellington went to help them, and gradually Wellington drove the French from Spain.

The Emperor of Russia—the Czar Alexander—also began to disobey Napoleon. So Napoleon led a huge army against Russia. Then his misfortunes began. The roads were bad, and the march into Russia lasted much longer than he expected. The heat was intense, and many of his soldiers were ill. All the time the Russians retreated before him. They avoided a battle and, as they retreated, they destroyed the country, so that there was not enough food for the invading

French. Once there was a big battle, but it was not a real victory for Napoleon for there were great losses on both sides. At last Napoleon reached the city of Moscow. Now he thought the Russians would be sure to give way. But the Russians had abandoned the city, and had set fire to it before they went. Moscow was empty and burning; there was no food for Napoleon's soldiers. So he had to turn back and on the retreat his soldiers had a terrible time. They were ill and starving. It was now winter, and the weather was bitterly cold. As they trudged on many died by the way. The Russians came after them and attacked any stragglers who fell behind.

When Napoleon's soldiers got back from Russia, they were only a small number of the huge army which had started. Thousands of them had died. The other European peoples were now encouraged to fight against him, and a great battle was fought at Leipzig in Germany. It was called the Battle of the Nations, because Russians, Germans, and Austrians were all fighting against Napoleon. He lost more and more men: his rule was being overthrown. Soon he was quite defeated. He was forced to give up the throne of France, and was sent to live in the little island of Elba in the Mediterranean. His great conquests were lost, and everyone thought Europe would have peace again.

Napoleon was not long in Elba. He escaped, and came back to France. On his way to Paris he was stopped by some French soldiers. "Fire on him," ordered their officer, who was against Napoleon.

But Napoleon stepped forward and cried: "Soldiers, if there is one among you who wishes to kill his Emperor, he can do so. Here I am." They shouted: "Long live the Emperor," and came to his side. He was so admired that soon he had an army ready to fight again.

Then came Napoleon's last battle—the battle of Waterloo, where Wellington was against him with a British army. Napoleon had a poor opinion of Wellington. "Wellington," he said, "is a bad general, and his army is a bad army." He soon found he was mistaken. Wellington's army stood up against the charges of the French, and when Wellington charged, the French were driven back in confusion. In the middle of the battle a German army arrived to help Wellington, and this made things worse for Napoleon. "They are in confusion," he exclaimed, "all is lost," and he had to flee from Waterloo.

When Wellington saw the numbers of the dead lying on the battlefield, he exclaimed with tears in his eyes: "I have never fought such a battle, and I hope never to fight such another." But at last Napoleon had been defeated. Later, Wellington said: "Waterloo did more than any other battle I know towards the true object of all battles—the peace of the world." The world was now at peace. Napoleon this time was sent to a lonelier island than Elba. He was imprisoned in St. Helena in the middle of the South Atlantic, where he died six years later.

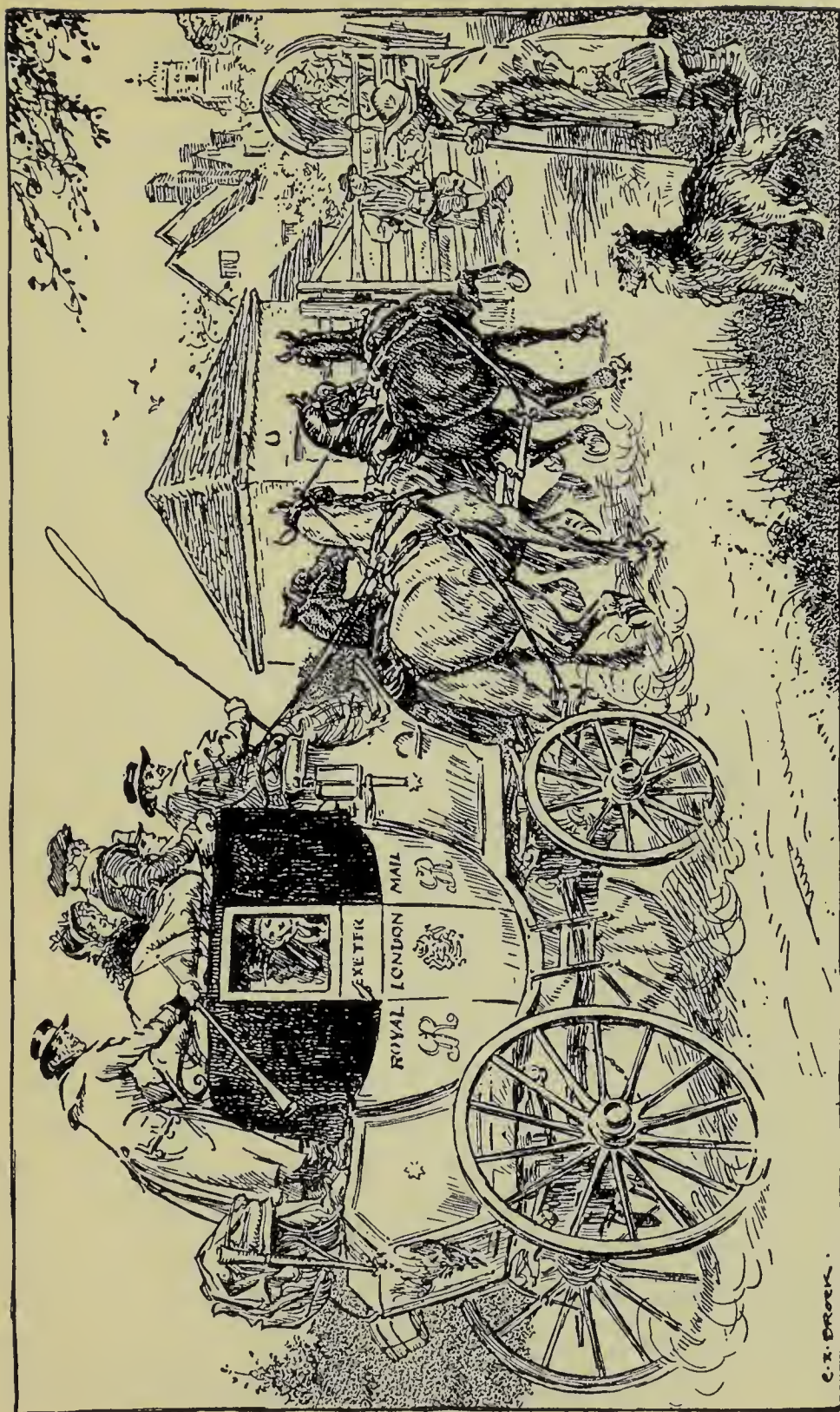
19. NEW INVENTIONS

When George III began to Reign

If we could go back more than a hundred and fifty years to the early years of George III's reign, we should find that things were still very different from what they are now. There were no railway trains and no steamers, for there were no big steam engines of any kind. There were no big factories, though there were many small mills. But these mills were either wind-mills or water-mills.

When people travelled long distances they had to ride on horseback or be driven in coaches or carts. Running between important places there were big coaches instead of trains. These were called stage-coaches; they were drawn by several horses, and the horses were changed at certain stages. People could sit either inside the coach or on the roof. But travelling was difficult and even dangerous.

At certain places there were toll-houses where there were gates across the road, called turnpikes. To get past, travellers had to pay tolls, and this money was used to keep the roads in good repair. To-day there are sometimes tolls on bridges. Still, in spite of the tolls the roads were very bad. The wheels of the coaches often stuck in the mud, and the journey took a very long time. The stage-coach from London to Edinburgh might take two or three weeks to finish its journey.



Nearing the Toll-gate

C. J. Brock

To-day a fast train can go from London to Edinburgh in eight hours.

Then there were robbers. Sometimes in quiet places armed robbers, called highwaymen, would stop the coaches and rob the passengers.

At that time people in the country often did spinning and weaving in their own farmhouses and cottages. Spinning is making thread out of cotton or wool; weaving is making cloth out of thread. Spinning was done with spinning-wheels. But spinning-wheels worked very slowly, and it took a long time to make much thread.

Steam-engines

During George III's reign new ways of spinning and weaving were discovered. People invented bigger machines which did the work much quicker, but they were too big to be worked by hand. They had to be worked by water-wheels. After a time they became much bigger still, for people found out how to work them by steam, and steam can drive much more powerful machines than a water-wheel.

For many hundreds of years people had known that steam could be used to drive machinery, but for a long time they were only able to make very small steam-engines. These were merely toys, and could not be used as anything else. Then better and bigger ones were made, and at the time when George III became king, they were sometimes used for pumping water out of coal-mines. But they were still very clumsy engines. At last a great engineer named James Watt

made steam-engines which worked so well that they could be used for many different purposes, and they were brought in to work the machines for spinning and weaving.

These inventions made great changes in spinning and weaving. Far more cloth could now be made. But the machines were now too big and expensive for people to spin and weave in their own houses or in little mills. Wealthy men who could afford them made big mills called factories, and many people were now employed to come and work the machines in the factories.

Machinery for steam-engines had to be made of iron. Like coal, iron is found in the ground, but before it is made into the proper iron that can be used, it has to be melted at a great heat. This is called *Smelting*. Long ago smelting was done by burning charcoal, which comes from wood, but people discovered that it could be done much better with coal. And when iron machinery was needed for steam-engines, people had to get far more coal. In any case, more and more coal was wanted for the fires for the steam-engines. So many new and bigger coal-mines were begun.

This made another change. It was better to build the factories which used steam-engines near places where coal and iron were to be found. Then the people who worked in the factories had to go and live in these places. This meant that in coal and iron districts towns, which up to this time had been quite small, grew bigger and bigger. Places like Manchester, Birmingham, and Glasgow became huge cities, the biggest

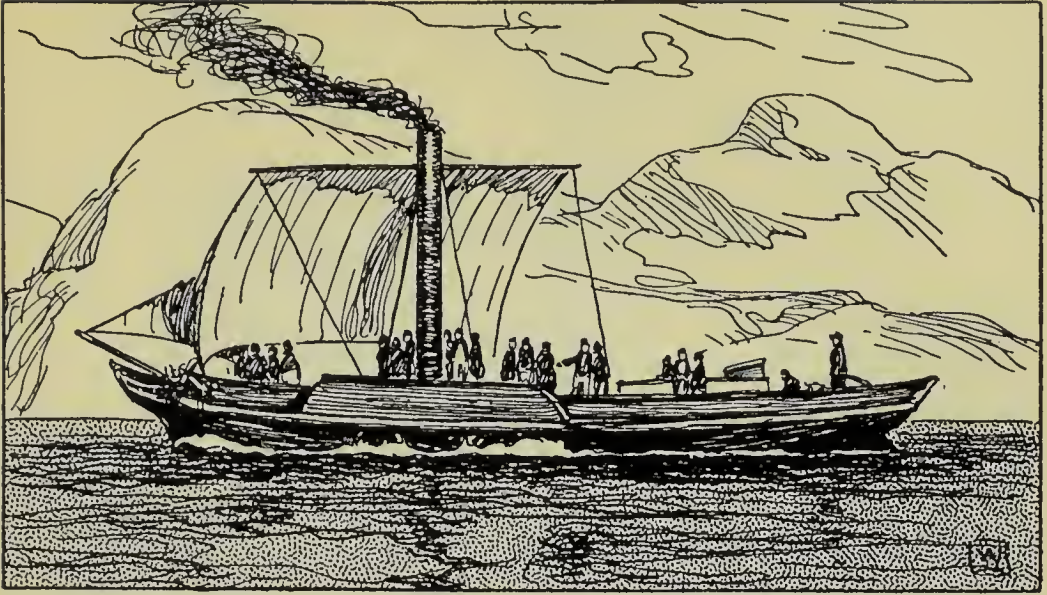
and most important in Great Britain, except London.

Still, heavy cargoes of coal and iron had often to be moved from one part of the country to another. How was it done? We must remember that there were still no railway trains running all over the country with coal-trucks and goods wagons. The easiest way of carrying these things was by boats on canals. So, many canals were made. One canal went from the inland town of Manchester to Liverpool, which is a sea-port. Another went from the Forth to the Clyde. Most of these canals still exist. These are small canals, and are not like the Manchester Ship Canal, or the Suez Canal, or the Panama Canal, which were made much later, and are for big ocean-going ships.

Steam-boats

It was on the Forth and Clyde Canal that one of the first steam-boats sailed. Her name was the *Charlotte Dundas*. She was made by a man called William Symington, and was launched on the canal in the year 1802. She was driven by a paddle at the stern, and her work was to tow barges on the canal. She was able to tow two barges against a strong wind at the speed of three miles an hour. At the time people thought this was wonderful. But some people disliked the *Charlotte Dundas*. They thought the waves caused by the paddles would damage the banks of the canal, and after a time her sailing had to be stopped.

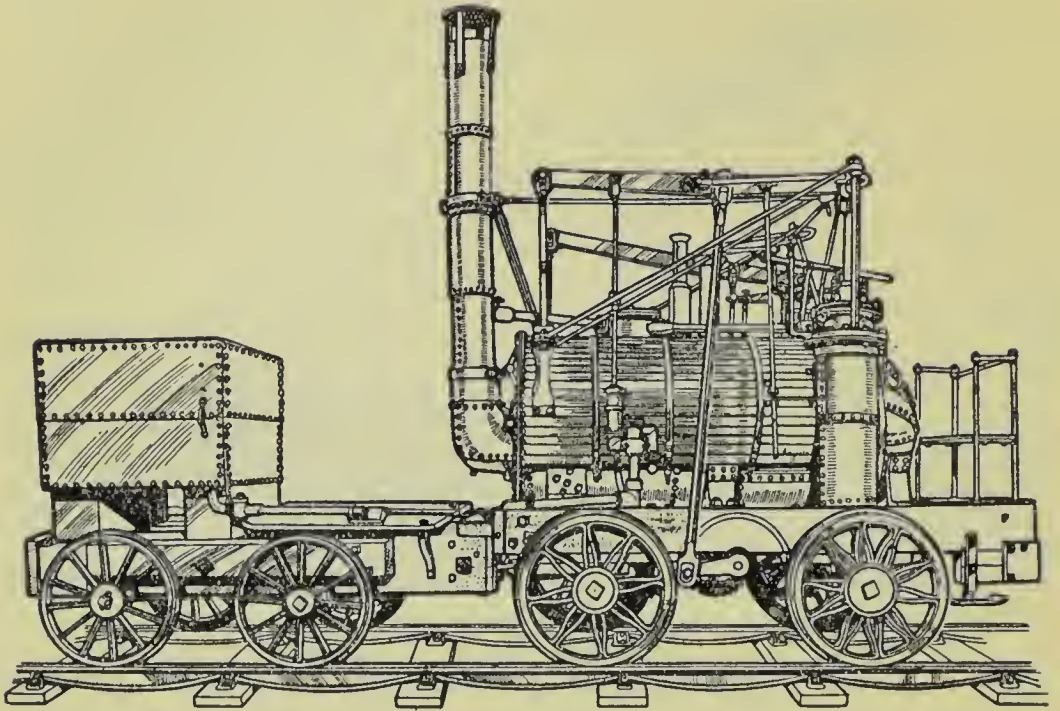
Soon after, a man called Henry Bell made a much better steamer. Henry Bell lived at Helens-



The Comet

burgh, on the Clyde, where he owned an inn. His wife looked after the inn, and he spent much of his time making experiments with engines. At last he made a steamer called the *Comet* which sailed on the Clyde. She was forty-two feet long, had paddles on the sides, and could travel at five miles an hour. From this time the Clyde became famous for building steamers. Just about the time of the battle of Waterloo, a steamer built on the Clyde sailed through the Forth and Clyde Canal, and after nearly a week's journey down the east coast, reached the Thames.

These early steamers looked very queer to those who saw them for the first time. Sometimes people were frightened. The beating of the paddles, the shaking and trembling of the boat caused by the machinery, and the smoke and flames pouring out of the funnel made the steamers look like horrible mon-



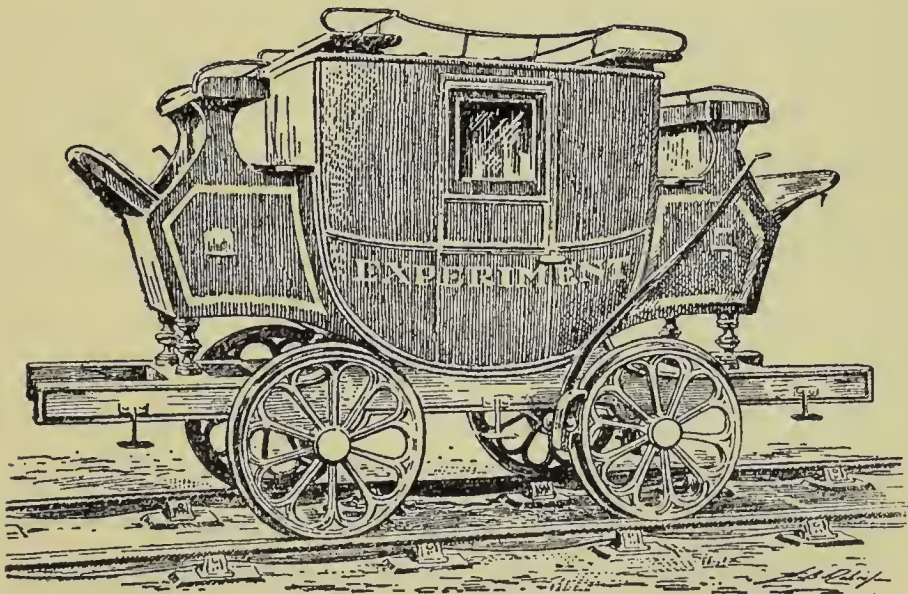
“ Puffing Billy ”

sters. Sometimes they were thought to be dangerous, for at first the boilers were apt to burst.

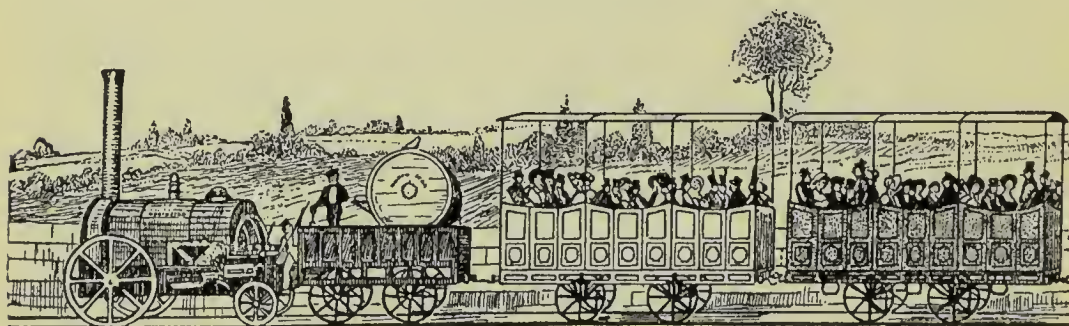
George Stephenson

One of the great engineers of this time was George Stephenson. He was born in 1781, and for many years he lived near Newcastle where he worked on a coal-mine. He looked after one of the engines for pumping water out of the mine. When the engine was not in use he liked to take it to bits in order to learn how it worked. He made experiments with all kinds of mechanical things. He made a safe kind of lamp for miners to use underground, and it was known as the “ Geordie ”.

At this time there were rails for the trucks which carried coals at the tops of mines. These trucks were pulled by horses: the rails were used only because people had discovered that a horse could pull a heavy load more easily when the trucks ran on rails. But people were now beginning to wonder if steam-engines could not be made to pull trucks. A man had made a kind of steam carriage which had been able to run along the road. Then a railway engine for carrying coals was made. It was a strange-looking engine, and was called "Puffing Billy". George Stephenson was very interested in these inventions, and he made several engines of the same kind himself. They were used for taking coals from the mines to the bank of the River Tyne. But he determined to make a better railway engine which would be able to carry goods and passengers for long distances. At last he made engines



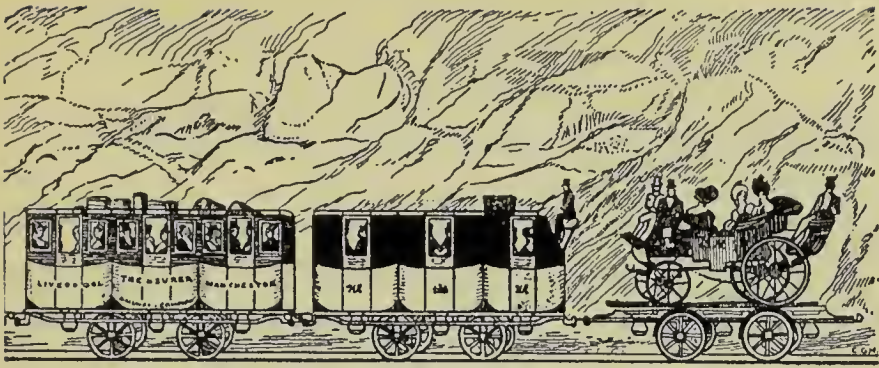
A passenger coach built by Stephenson in 1825



Trains on the Liverpool and Manchester

which went so well and so quickly that people began to think of laying railway lines all over the country.

The first big railway line was between Manchester and Liverpool, and it was started in 1829. The people who made the line asked Stephenson to be the engineer for the railway, for he had made a very good engine called the *Rocket*, which could go at over thirty miles an hour. He had made several other engines, and these were all to be used on the new railway. Many important people came to the opening of the railway to see the trains running. Among them was the Duke of Wellington and a man called Huskisson, who was the member of Parliament for Liverpool. An un-



Railway, 1830. First Class above, Third Class below

fortunate accident happened. Huskisson, after shaking hands with the Duke of Wellington, stepped back on to the line without looking where he was going. One of Stephenson's engines was coming along the line, and it knocked him down and killed him.

Before long, railways were being made all over the country. The first passenger trains sometimes had carriages like open carts with no roof and no seats. The better carriages had a roof; sometimes the passengers' luggage was put on the roof. Railways made a great difference to the country. People could now travel long distances very easily and quickly.

20. MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT

Parliament is very important in governing the country. It helps to make laws. The prime minister and the other ministers of the king are in Parliament, for they are always members of the House of Lords or of the House of Commons—the two Houses of Parliament.

In the year 1831 there was great excitement among members of Parliament, and everywhere in the country. It had been suggested that there should be a new law about the way of choosing the members of the House of Commons. The members of the House of Commons—they are usually just called the members of Parliament—are sent to Parliament from different towns or counties throughout the country. But for a long time several things had been wrong with the way the members of Parliament were chosen.

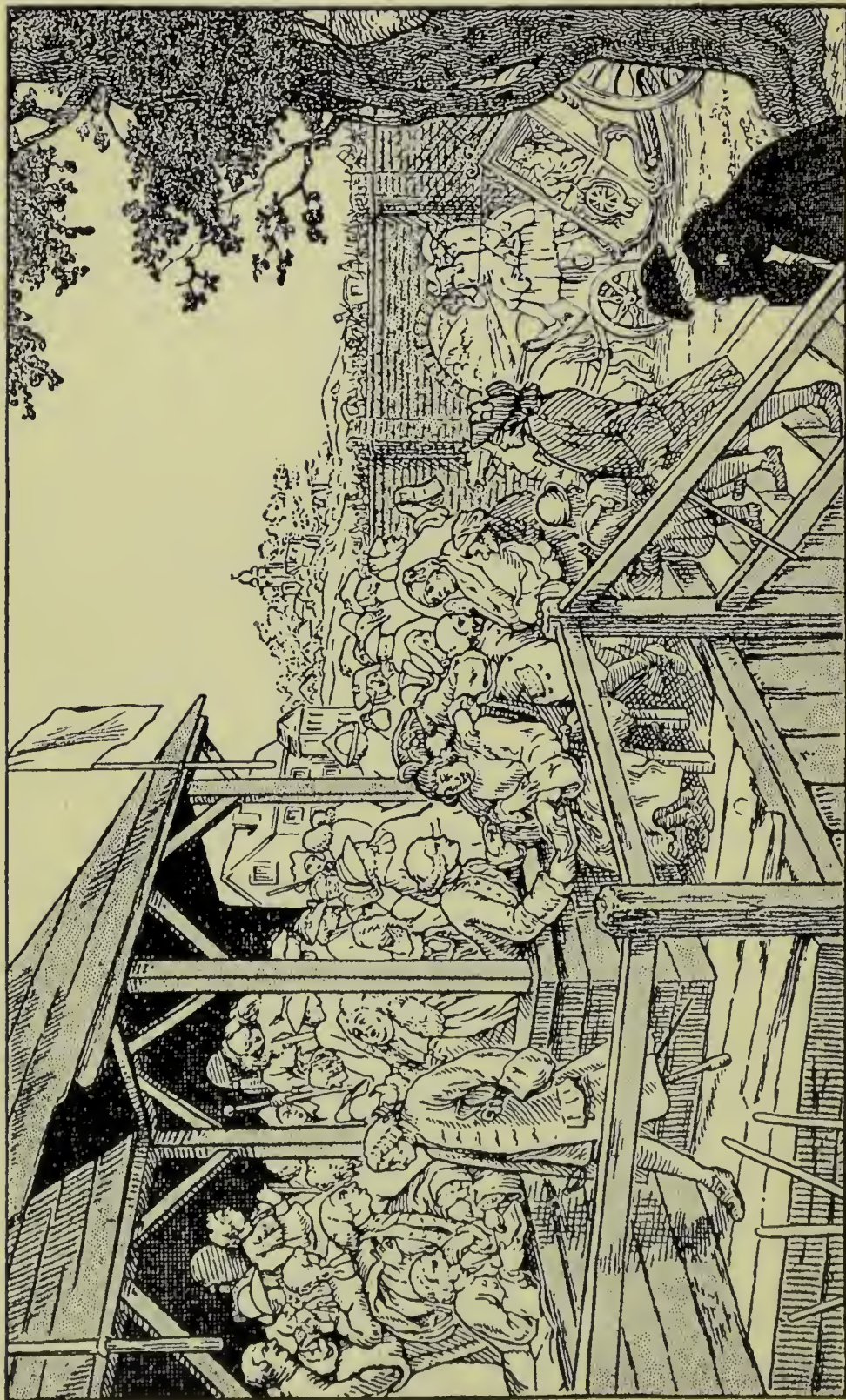
The choosing of a member of Parliament is called an *election*, but in many of the towns and counties only a very few people were allowed to take part in the election; in some only one or two of the most important people could do the choosing. These people could elect a man whom most of the others living in the place might not like.

Many began to object to this. They wanted to have more to do with the government of the country; more people wanted to help to choose the members of Parliament themselves.

There was another thing wrong with the way members of Parliament were chosen. There were many new towns which had grown big quite recently, and these places were without the right to send any members to Parliament. Other places, though they were very small and had very few inhabitants, could send members. The people who lived in the big new cities were annoyed at this.

There were, however, a few places in which a great many people took part in choosing the member of Parliament, and in these places elections were sometimes very exciting events. The men who wanted to be elected to Parliament came and made speeches outside, from a platform called the *hustings*. If people did not like them they threw things at them. There was a place called a polling-booth where each person who was allowed to vote in the election said which of the men he wanted to be elected. This polling-booth was open for a fortnight for people to vote, and all the time it was open the men who wanted to be chosen made speeches and tried to persuade people to vote for them. Usually there were two men wanting to be chosen; sometimes there were three or four. They were called the candidates.

The friends of the different candidates often fought against each other with sticks and stones. Sometimes bands of men who were friends of one of the candidates would go about armed with sticks trying to frighten people into voting for their friend. They tried to get everyone to come and vote for their man. The candidates tried to please people by inviting them to



This Election is as the scene described on page 161. The great artist Hogarth pictured it

big dinners and giving them plenty to drink. So at an election there was often fighting and many people became drunk. Windows were broken, and in the rioting people were hurt and sometimes even killed.

The picture is of an election about the time when George III became king. It shows the people coming to vote at the polling-booth. All people, however ill, are being dragged by their friends to vote. The first one voting is an old soldier who has lost a leg, an arm, and a hand, in the wars. Behind him, in a chair, is a deaf lunatic; someone is shouting into his ear the name of the man for whom he should vote. At the top of the stair a man who is very ill is being carried to vote by his friends. On the stair is a blind man followed by a cripple. At the back of the polling-booth, under the roof, are the two candidates. The one who is sitting with his hands on his stick looks very determined and satisfied. He is sure he is getting more votes than the other. The other, who is scratching his head, is looking very worried. Between them is a policeman with his staff. He is supposed to be keeping things in order, but he has fallen asleep. There is also in the picture a coach which looks as though it is falling over, because the coachman and his friend are too busy playing cards.

Now, in 1831, many people wished to make a new law to improve these elections. It was suggested that far more people should be allowed to vote, and that those big new towns which sent no members to Parliament should now do so. The great question in 1831 was whether this law should be made or not.

A new law can only be made when the King, the

House of Lords, and the House of Commons all agree that it should be made. In 1831 the people in Parliament who wanted the new law were called Whigs, but there were also people called Tories, who did not like to make this change. The question was discussed first in the House of Commons. People made speeches—some in favour of the change, some against it. Then the members voted to show whether they wanted the change or not. Someone who was there said that everyone was breathless with excitement; and that you could have heard a pin drop when the numbers were counted. Then it was announced that 302 had voted for the new law; 301 had voted against it. This meant that the House of Commons had passed the law. The Whigs cheered, and, as the members went out of the House of Commons, the people outside cheered and shouted.

King William IV would agree to making the new law if Parliament wanted it, but would the other House of Parliament—the House of Lords—pass it too? The House of Lords discussed the question, and speeches were made there too. But there were more Tories in the House of Lords, and they were led by the Duke of Wellington, who was against making this new law. One of the Whig lords pleaded with the members to pass it. “Rouse not, I beseech you,” he said, “a peace-loving but resolute people.” He knew that most people in the country would be very angry if the House of Lords did not pass the law. But they refused to pass it. When they voted, those against the change were forty-one more than those for it.

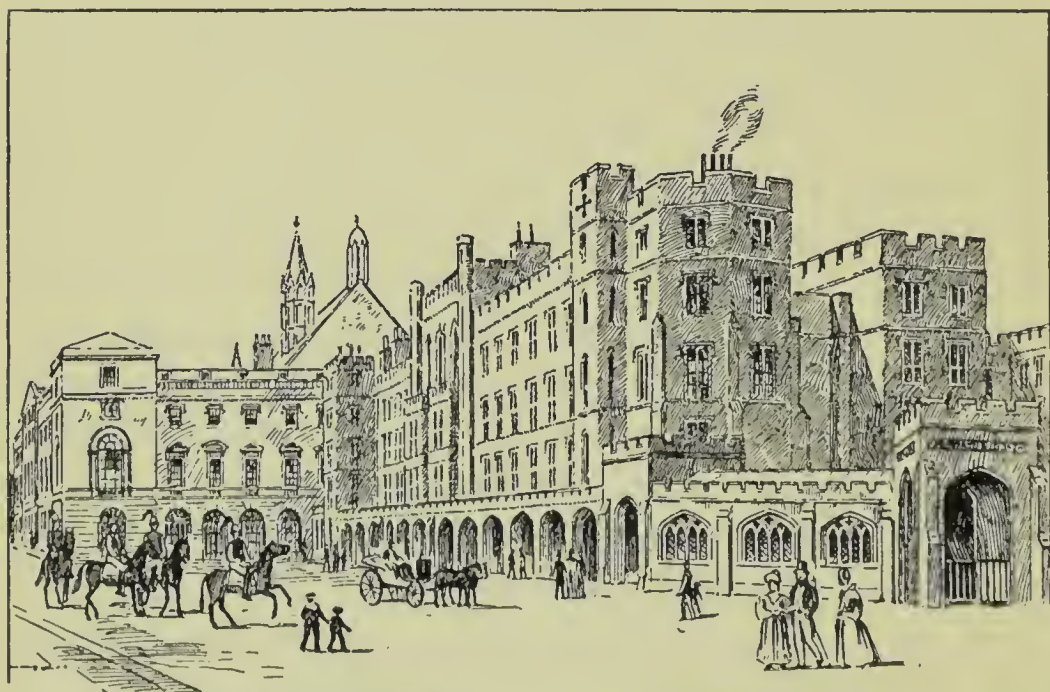
When this happened many people were furious, and there was rioting and fighting in several places. Then it was suggested to the king that there was one way of forcing the House of Lords to agree to the new law. The members of the House of Lords are not elected like the members of the House of Commons: they are made lords by the king. If the king made a large number of new lords who were Whigs, then there would be enough Whigs in the House of Lords to make the law pass. When Wellington and the Tories heard that the king might do this they thought it would be better to agree to let the new law be made rather than have a great many new lords. So, at last, they allowed the House of Lords to pass it. The new law had now passed the House of Commons and the House of Lords. Then the king agreed to it, and it became the law. Far more people were now allowed to vote in elections, and there were to be members of Parliament for the new big towns like Manchester.

Since that time there have been more changes. For a long time women were not allowed to vote in elections, but now nearly all people, both men and women, have the right to vote.

When an election takes place now, all the voting is done in one day. When a man goes to the polling-place he is given a piece of paper on which are printed the names of the different candidates. He puts a cross beside the name of the man for whom he wants to vote, and then drops the piece of paper into a thing like a letter box. This box is called the ballot-box. No one need know for whom he has voted, and so people

cannot be frightened into voting for anyone as they were long ago.

Every five years there has to be what is called a *general election*. At a general election there are elections all over the country. But if a member of the House of Commons dies between one general election and the next someone has to be elected in his place. Then there is what is called a *bye-election* in the district for which he was a member.



House of Commons.

House of Lords.

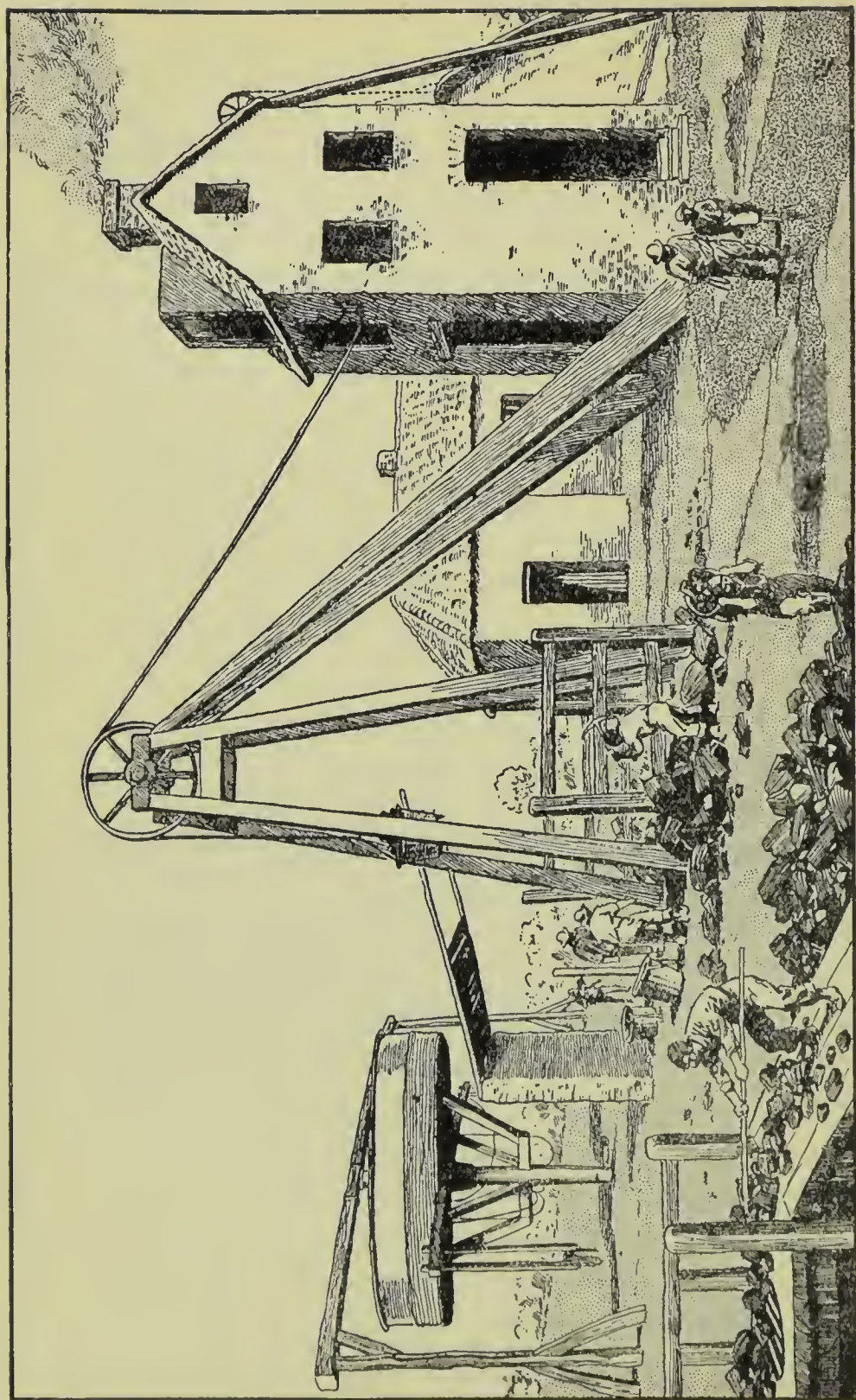
The Houses of Parliament in 1831

21. DISTRESS IN THE COUNTRY

Factories and Coal-mines

We have read about the building of factories. Some of these factories were very unpleasant places. They were dark and low-roofed, and the air was bad. The people who worked in them often became unhealthy and yet had to work for very long hours every day. The worst thing about the factories was that young children of not more than six or seven worked in them too, and worked for nearly the whole day. Sometimes when they came home they were so tired that they went straight to bed and fell fast asleep without bothering to eat any supper.

One of the people who tried to make factories better was a man called Robert Owen. When he was quite young he had a cotton-factory of his own in Manchester. Then he went to Scotland and became head of a factory near the town of Lanark. He determined to make this factory a model for all others. He kept the buildings fresh and healthy, and built neat cottages for the factory-workers. He saw that the people did not work too many hours a day, and he refused to make very small children work in the factories at all. They were sent to school instead. Owen made a great deal of money, but most of it he used to keep the factory and the cottages in good condition. This place was called New Lanark. It became a kind of model village, and people came from far to see it. It helped to make



A colliery early in the nineteenth century

people see that factories in other places ought to be made better.

Another person who did a great deal to improve factories was Lord Shaftesbury. He was specially anxious to see that small children did not have a hard time. It was not only in factories that children suffered hardships. The worst places were coal-mines. In some coal-mines small children were sent crawling along narrow passages only two feet high. They had to pull after them little trucks for the coal. Sometimes they had to go on working like that for twelve hours. The mines were often wet, and the poor children might have to crawl or stand in water for hours together.

Shaftesbury made it his work to stop these things. For years he went about telling people about these horrors, and trying to persuade Parliament to make laws to stop them. He got Parliament to send out men to ask questions and find out what happened in factories and mines. At last, as a result of his great efforts, laws were made which said that no small children should be allowed to work in factories and coal-mines, and that no women should work in coal-mines. Inspectors were sent round to see that factories and mines were kept in proper condition, and that people suffered no terrible hardships.

Shaftesbury also did a great deal to stop the employment of small boys to sweep chimneys. In these days chimneys were wider than they are now, and small boys were able to climb up them. So, chimney-sweepers often made small boys go up them to clean them, instead of using long brushes. These poor boys

must have had a horrible life. They worked long hours. Most of the time they were black, and eyes, nose, and breathing must have suffered terribly from the flying particles of soot.

The Hungry Forties

At the time when Lord Shaftesbury was rousing people to stop children working in coal-mines, there was great unhappiness in the country. The few years after 1840 were known as the "Hungry Forties". In 1840 and 1841 the summers were wet. The harvests were bad, and there were poor crops of wheat for making bread. That meant that bread was dear. Many people were very poor and were starving. People sometimes had to eat the food meant for their pigs.

Things would only get better if food did not cost so much. Many people said that food cost so much because there were certain laws called the Corn Laws. These laws prevented cargoes of corn being brought to this country from abroad, because through them corn could only be brought into the country if taxes or duties were paid on it at the sea-ports. These duties were like the duties which made the Americans throw tea into Boston harbour. If the Corn Laws were brought to an end—if they were repealed—then bread would become cheaper.

One day, in 1841, a cotton-spinner called John Bright was alone in his house. He was very unhappy, for his wife had just died. His friend Richard Cobden came to see him, and said to him: "There are thousands

of houses in England at this moment where wives, mothers, and children are dying of hunger. Come with me, and we will never rest till the Corn Law is repealed." These two, Bright and Cobden, became the leaders of those people who wanted to repeal the Corn Laws.

The prime minister at this time was Sir Robert Peel. His father had been a cotton-spinner and a member of Parliament. Robert Peel himself had become a member of Parliament when he was only twenty-one, more than thirty years before this. Since then he had become an important statesman. He is easily remembered, because he started what is now called the police force. Before his time there had been few policemen, and they had not done their work properly. Peel made new arrangements in which policemen were appointed for regular employment in every part of the country just as they are to-day. The policemen were often thought of as Robert Peel's men, and that is why they are still sometimes called "Roberts", "Bobbies", or "Peelers".

Peel had just become the prime minister, and he wondered what he should do about the distress in the country. He was a great friend of the Duke of Wellington, and he was leader of the Tories. At this time



A "Peeler"

the Tories were beginning to be called the Conservatives; their opponents, the Whigs, were beginning to be called the Liberals. Now, the Liberals wanted to repeal the Corn Laws. The Conservatives wanted to keep them in existence, for they thought it would be bad for the farmers if they were repealed. Peel hoped that better harvests would make bread less dear, and for a year or two the harvests were quite good. It might not be necessary to repeal the Corn Laws.

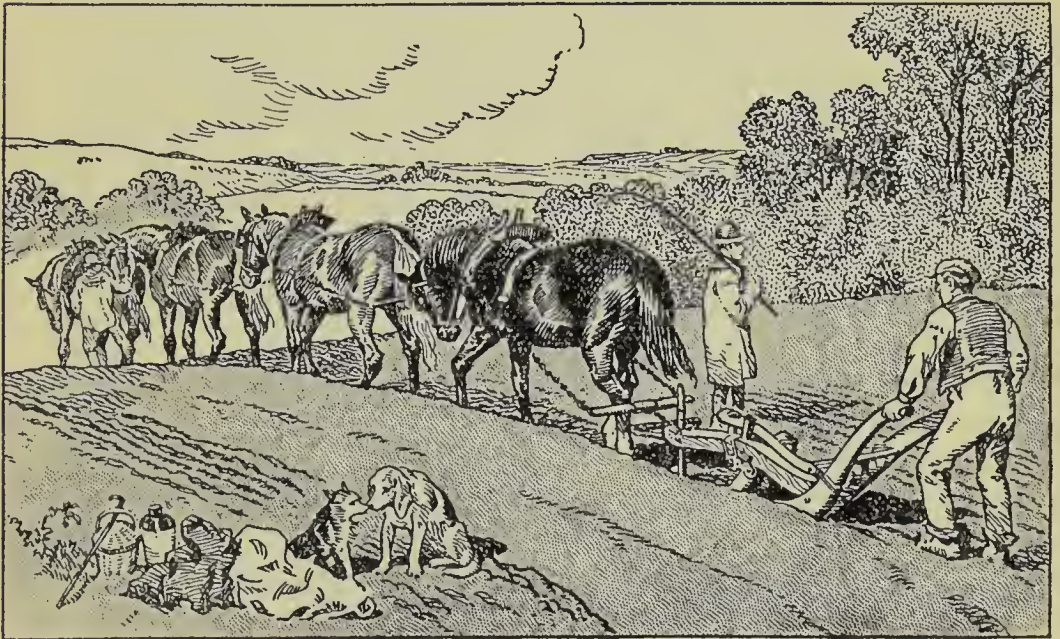
Then in 1845 there came a very bad summer. The harvests were bad: things were worse than they had been before. The potatoes in Ireland were attacked by a disease and rotted in the ground. Next year it was still worse. Half the people in Ireland lived on potatoes. There were now no potatoes, and thousands were dying of starvation.

There seemed to be only one thing to do. The Corn Laws must be repealed in order to allow more corn to be brought into the country, and to stop the starvation.

Peel decided to do this, and the Corn Laws were repealed. The Liberals in Parliament helped him to pass the repeal, but most of his Conservative friends were against him. Only a few, including the Duke of Wellington, stood by him. Peel knew that it would cause him to lose his place as prime minister. For most of the Conservatives were against him; they were so angry with him for having repealed the Corn Laws. And the Liberals had only been on his side for a short time in order to pass the repeal. They were against him as soon as that was done. A prime minister can only continue being prime minister if there are more people

in Parliament on his side than against him. There were far more against Peel than would stand by him. So he had to resign.

A few years later Peel was out riding. His horse got a fright and suddenly threw him over its head. Then it stumbled and fell on the top of him. Peel was very badly injured, and died a few days afterwards. People were very sorry. Even his opponents said he had been a great man. When the Duke of Wellington got up to speak about him in the House of Lords he was so distressed that he could only say a few sentences. The Duke of Wellington was now an old man of over eighty. It was thirty-five years since the Battle of Waterloo. He had lived longer than most of his friends.



Ploughing with a wooden plough, 1854

A cotton-field in the United States of America at the time of Lincoln



22. SLAVERY AND ABRAHAM LINCOLN

The cotton factories which were being built in England were mostly in Lancashire. Lancashire was a good place for them. There were plenty of coal-mines near at hand where coal could be got to work the machinery; and the cotton which was brought from abroad to be made into thread and cloth in the factories could be landed at the port of Liverpool.

A great deal of this cotton came from the United States of America. Since Washington's day the United States had grown much bigger. New country to the west was explored and new states were formed. Among these were Kentucky, Illinois, and Mississippi. These became new states which were parts of the United States.

In some of the northern states of the United States, new inventions brought about the same kind of changes as were taking place in England. Factories were built, and coal-mines were worked. Pennsylvania became famous for its coal.

The states in the south of the United States were different. They were important, not because of factories or coal, but because of the cultivation of the land. In those southern states where the climate was warmer the land was very good for growing certain things like tobacco and cotton. And great quantities of this

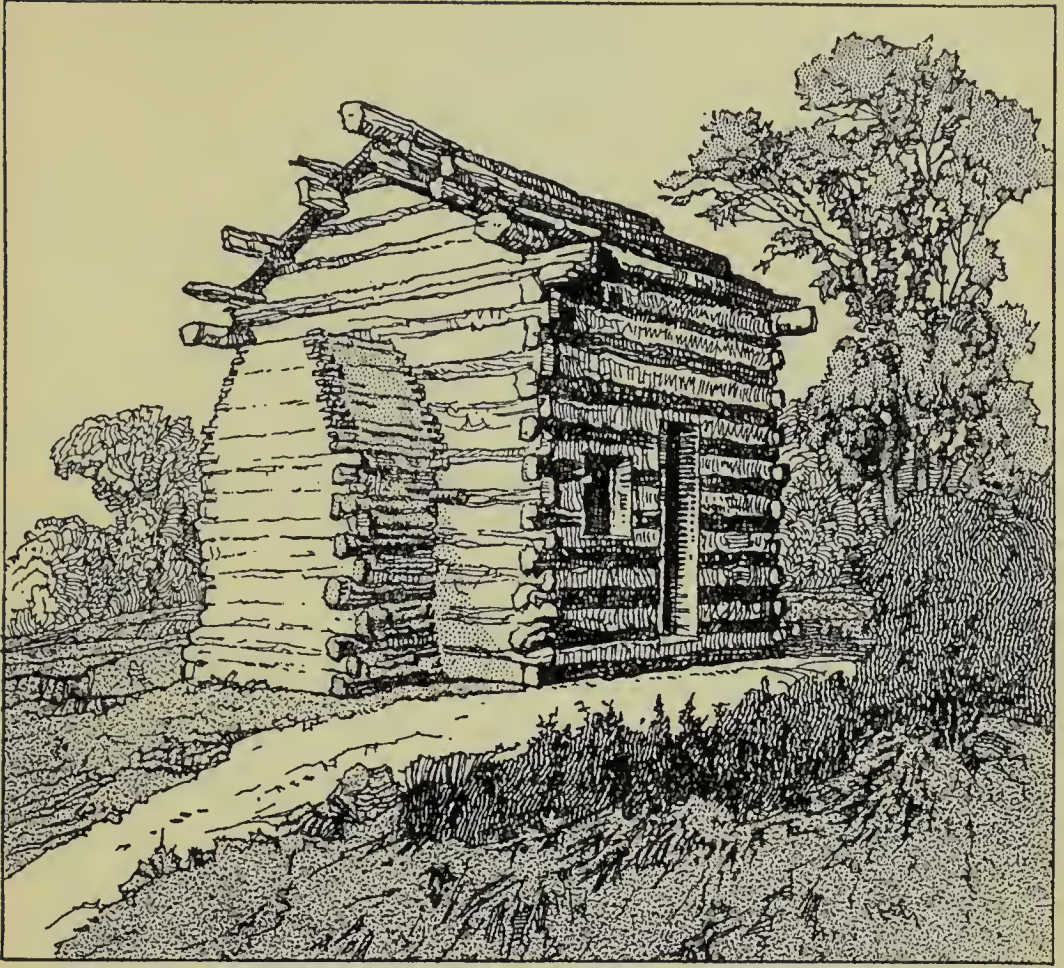
cotton were brought to Liverpool for the Lancashire mills.

In these southern states there were many negro slaves. Since the days of Queen Elizabeth people had captured negroes in Africa. These negroes were brought to the American continent and to the West Indies and sold to the cotton planters to work as slaves. The slaves belonged to their owners just as a dog belongs to its master. They had to do whatever their masters wanted. They had no rights of their own, and could be sold by one master to another. Sometimes they were treated well, sometimes badly. They were altogether in the power of their masters, and if the masters were harsh men, they were harshly treated.

People were beginning to think it wrong that there should be such a thing as slavery. In the British Empire and in the northern states of the United States slavery had come to an end in the early part of the nineteenth century. But in the southern states of the United States, although no more slaves were brought from Africa, slavery still existed. And it was on the cotton fields where many slaves worked together that they were most harshly treated.

One of the people who wanted to put an end to slavery was Abraham Lincoln. He was born in Kentucky—at that time one of the newly-explored parts of the United States, where people were first beginning to settle. For a time his father was a carpenter there, and he and his family lived in a small hut built of logs.

Their life was very lonely, for they were far from neighbours, but it was active and even dangerous. Sometimes they were afraid of being attacked by Red



The log-cabin in which Abraham Lincoln was born

Indians. They had to spend much of their time in shooting animals and catching fish for their food, and in cutting logs for their fires. This active life made Abraham Lincoln grow up into a very tall, strong man.

After a time Abraham Lincoln went to live in Illinois, where he kept a store for selling all kinds of things to the new settlers. Once he saw slaves being badly treated, and he became convinced that slavery ought to be abolished.

Many years later Abraham Lincoln became a

famous man, for in 1860 he was elected President of the United States. He had become the head of the country. This was a very important event, for everyone knew that Lincoln was against slavery. The people in the northern states agreed with him; but the people in the southern states, who wanted to keep their slaves, knew that Lincoln would try to abolish slavery in the whole of the United States. So they said that they would now form a separate country of their own, and would have a different government from the northern states. This would mean that the United States would be broken into two separate countries.

Lincoln was determined that this should not happen. He insisted that the United States should remain one country. The southern states refused to give way. Fighting took place, and a war began between "the North" and "the South".

The war lasted for four years. At first many people in Britain felt as if they would like to help the southern states. It was the southern states which supplied them with cotton, and the war interfered with the cotton coming to Lancashire. "We do not want slavery," said someone in Britain, "but we want cotton." But in the middle of the war Lincoln declared that henceforward all slaves in the United States were free. This meant that the North was now fighting to stop slavery as well as to prevent the United States from becoming two countries. So people in Britain began to sympathize more with Lincoln and the North when they thought of the South as the defenders of slavery.

At last victory came to Lincoln and the North.



Abraham Lincoln

The South was beaten, and the southern states had to agree to remain part of the United States, although slavery was abolished. Lincoln had got the two things he wanted. The United States remained one big country, and slavery was at an end.

Soon after the war ended Lincoln went one night to the theatre. He was sitting with a friend in a box watching the play. The play was nearly finished when a man suddenly appeared at the back of the box with a pistol and a knife. He shot Lincoln on the head and stabbed his friend: then he jumped from the box on to the stage and shouted: "The South is avenged." Lincoln never recovered from the shot. He never spoke again, and died early the next morning. But he had done his great work in keeping the United States a strong united nation and in putting an end to slavery.

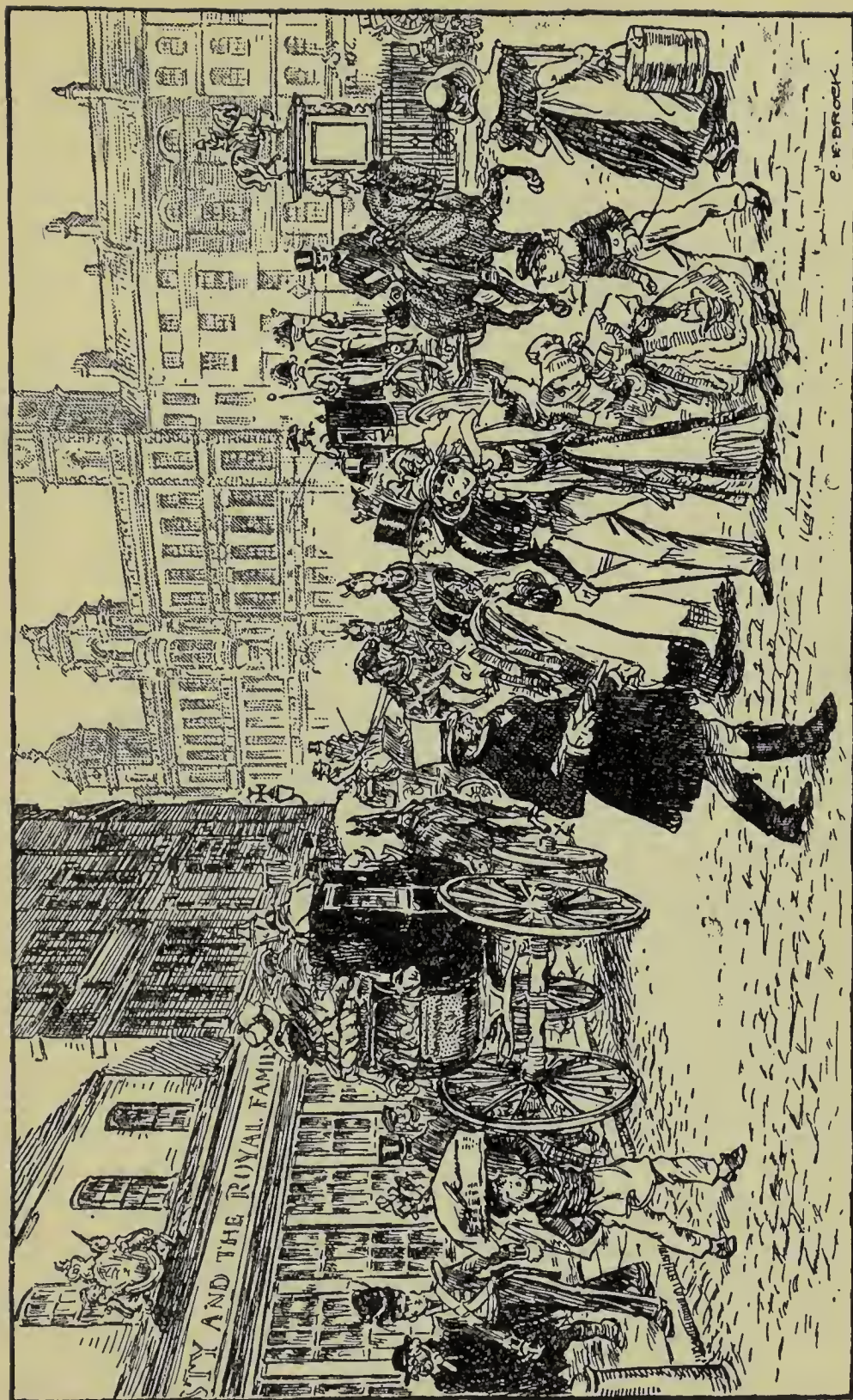
23. MORE INVENTIONS

One of the longest reigns in history was that of Queen Victoria, who was the grand-daughter of George III and the grandmother of our present king, George V. She began to reign in 1837 when her uncle, William IV, died, and she lived till 1901.

There is not room in this book to tell about the many exciting events which have happened during Victoria's long reign and since her death; but we shall finish our story of this country's history by mentioning some of the great changes which have taken place during that time.

It will help us to realize how great these changes have been if we think of some of the things that did not exist in the early days of Victoria's reign when Sir Robert Peel was Prime Minister. There were railway trains, steamers, and factories, and these things were making the countryside look more like what it is to-day than what it had looked like at the beginning of George III's reign. But there are many familiar sights of to-day which the people of 1850 never saw.

When the people of 1850 lived far from the railway and wanted to catch a train, there were no electric tramcars or motor-buses to take them to the station. When someone was ill and the doctor had to be sent for, there was no telephone to carry a message to him, and when he came there was no motor-car to bring him quickly. Far more horses were to be seen on the streets in the town and on the roads in the country. All



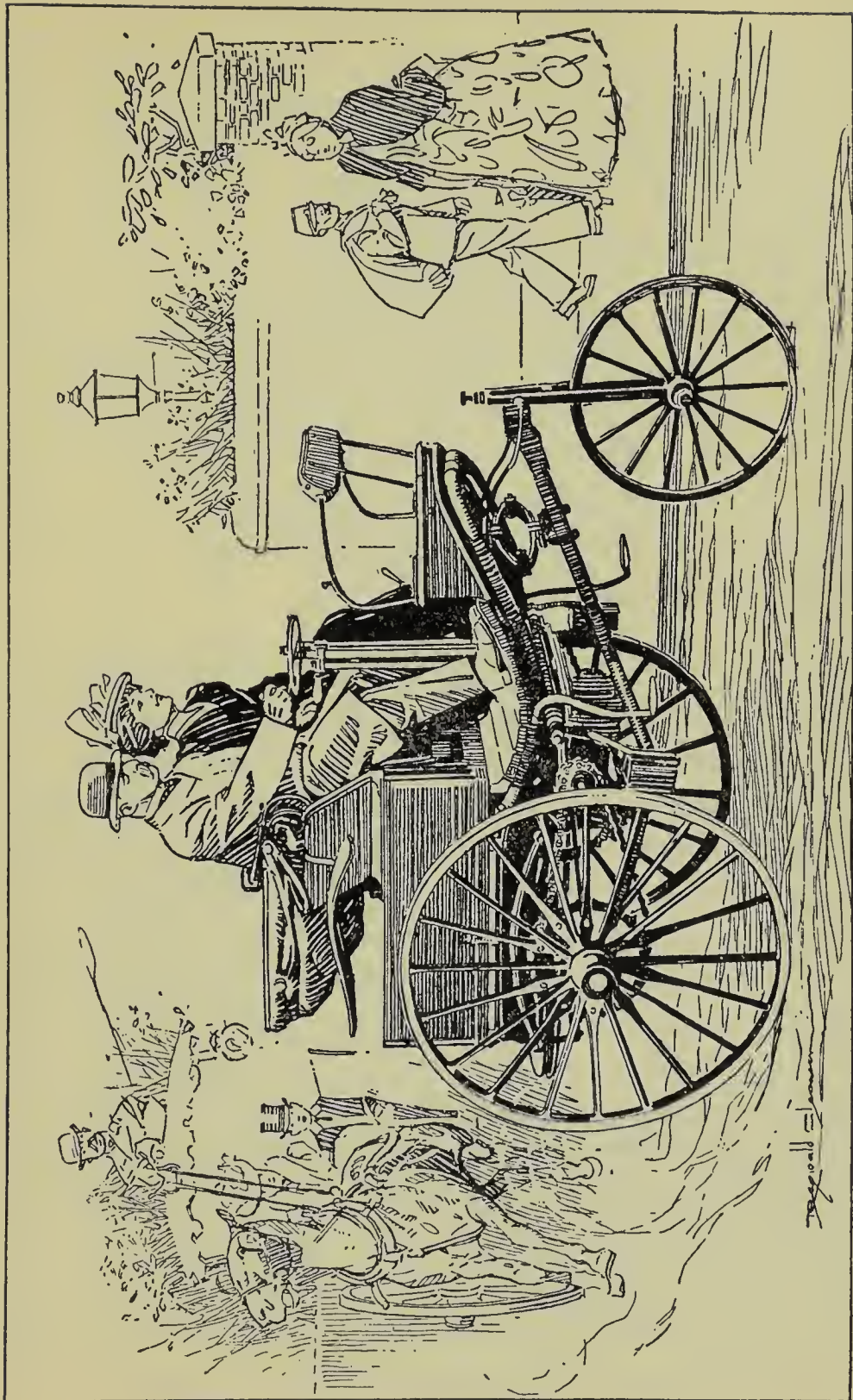
Charing Cross, London, in 1825

vehicles—lorries, coaches, cabs—were drawn by horses, and when, afterwards, tramway lines were laid in the towns, the first tramcars were pulled by horses. People drove about the country roads in carriages, not in motor-cars: so, of course, they could not go very far. It was only by railway trains that people could travel both quickly and far across the country.

There were fewer kinds of entertainments in 1850. There were no cinemas. Photography was only beginning, and it was not till long afterwards that moving pictures were shown. Of course there were no wireless programmes; for wireless had not been invented.

One of the great discoveries which helped to make many of the things we know to-day was the discovery how to use the power of electricity. The changes it caused were as wonderful as those which had followed the discoveries of new uses for the power of steam. It led to the use of the telegraph and the telephone. It has given us our electric light, our electric trams, and our electric trains. Every town is now lit by electricity, every big town has its electric trams, and some have electric trains. In London there are miles of underground electric railways, and in some places even long-distance trains are run by electricity instead of by steam.

Even more astonishing than the invention of the telephone has been the invention of wireless. People were very astonished when the telephone was invented in 1876, but they would have been more astonished to be told that some day their voices could be heard



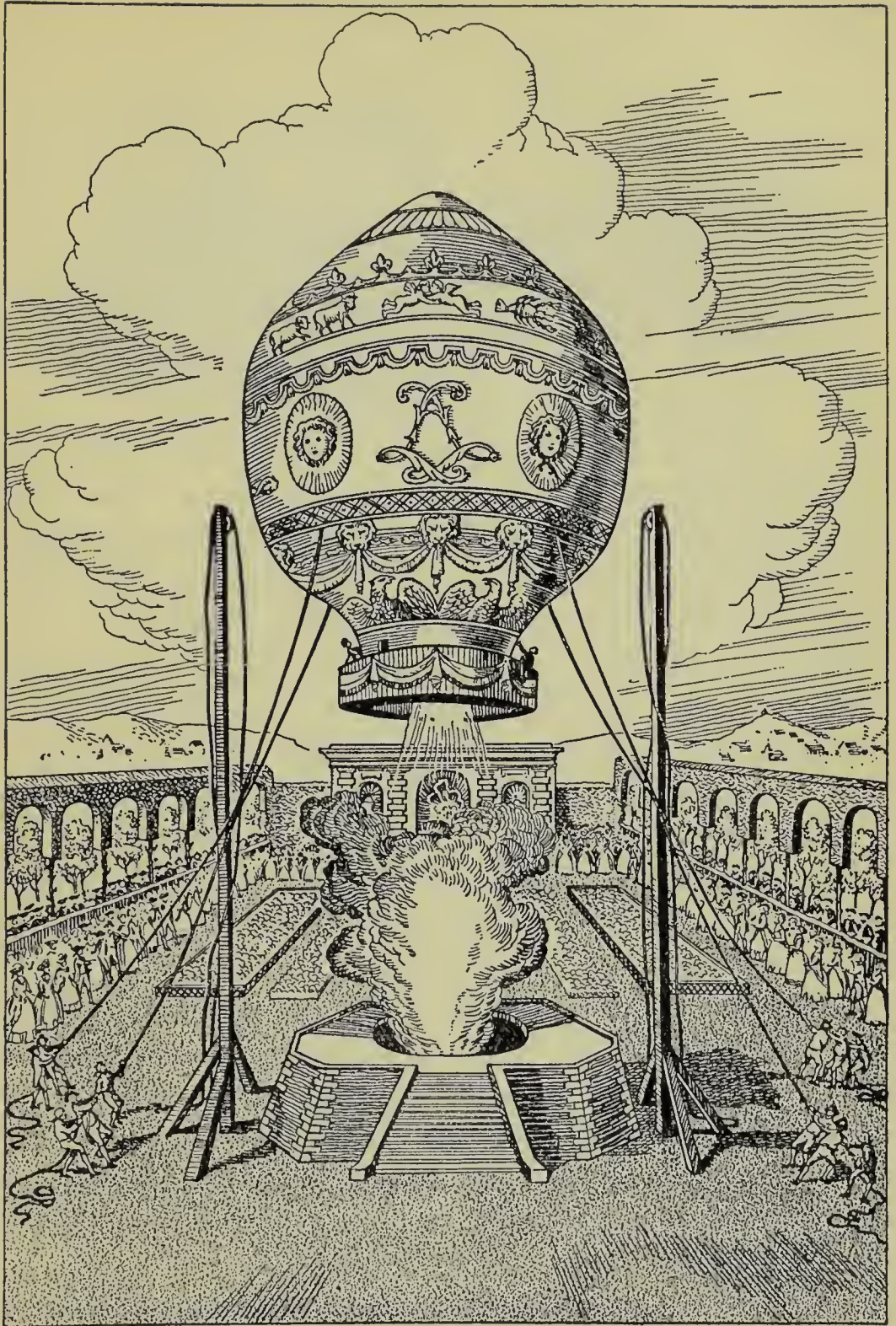
Motoring in 1888

thousands of miles away even without the use of wires. Yet to-day in every part of the country people can hear the news by wireless. If more is discovered about television it may some day become usual for people sitting in their own houses to see as well as to hear those who are speaking from broadcasting stations.

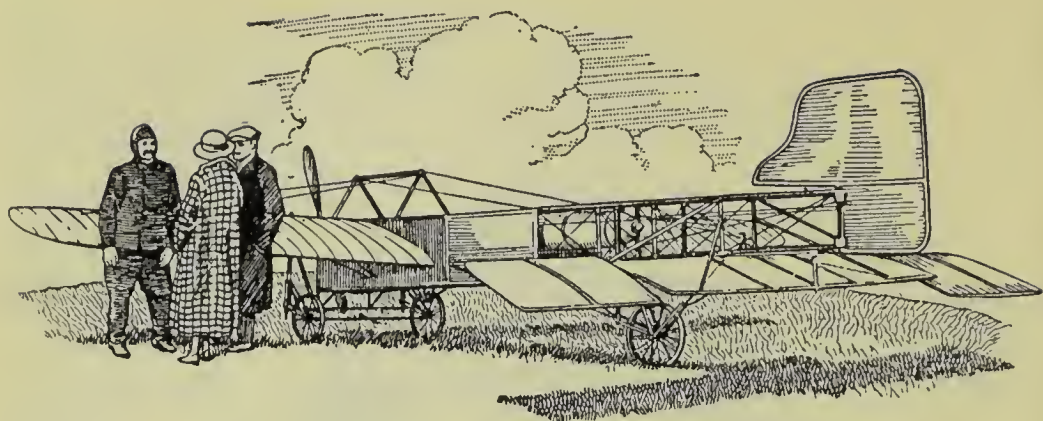
Forty years ago the first motor-cars were just beginning to run. In 1895 there was a motor race in France, and it was thought very wonderful that the motor-cars could go at the speed of fifteen miles an hour. Soon, they were made to go much faster, and to-day motor-cars can race along the road at forty or fifty miles an hour and more.

When motor-cars were beginning in London there was a law which said that a vehicle driven by an engine was not to go at more than four miles an hour; and a man with a red flag had to walk in front of it to warn the pedestrians that it was coming. This law was repealed in 1896: it shows that people had little realized how great the use of motor-cars would become.

Another great change of recent times has come from the invention of flying-machines. For many hundreds of years people had wondered how they could make flying-machines. We have read how Leonardo da Vinci tried to make one. But it was not till 1783 that the first ascent into the air was made. At Paris in that year, two Frenchmen, who had made a balloon, were able to fly in it for nearly half an hour. For a long time after this people experimented with balloons, but it was not till after the beginning of the present century that really satisfactory flying-machines were made.



A balloon "going up" in 1783



The first aeroplane to fly across the English Channel

There are two kinds of flying-machines. There are those airships which can float in the air because they are lighter than air. They are like balloons, and are filled with a kind of gas which is lighter than air. Then there are aeroplanes which are heavier than air, but are built in such a way that, when they are moving, they can be made to go up. The first flight of an aeroplane over the English Channel was made from France to England in 1909. At the time, that was thought to be a most wonderful achievement, as indeed it was, but now aeroplanes can fly across the Atlantic to America.

At the beginning of this book we read about Henry VII and Henry VIII and the small country of England over which they ruled. Since that time the small country has grown into the huge British Commonwealth, which is made up not only of Great Britain and Ireland, but of Canada, India, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and of many other smaller parts which can be seen on the map of the world. We have heard how some of these parts of the British Commonwealth were begun.

The great inventions of steam-power, and electric-

power, and flying have made all these lands seem much nearer to each other. In the days when Wolfe was conquering Canada, and Captain Cook was exploring Australia, it took a long time to reach these countries. It might be months before people at home knew what was happening in such distant lands. But now a big liner can cross to America in a few days, and a flying-machine reach Australia in nearly the same time. We can also read in the newspaper to-day about what happened yesterday in almost any part of the world. The great scientific inventions have made the world seem a much smaller place.

EXERCISES

(Questions are numbered according to the sub-divisions of each chapter)

The Tudors.

I. THE FIRST TWO TUDOR KINGS

1. (a) After the battle of Bosworth many people in England desired peace under a powerful king. What chiefly stood in the way of Henry VII's making himself a strong ruler?

(b) "Men in livery."—Describe these men and show how they were a danger in the reign of Henry VII.

2. What do you understand by a dialect? In what language were books usually written before printing came into use? Who was the first person to print books in England?

3. Who was the second Tudor sovereign? What relation was he to the first Tudor king? Name some of the amusements in the times of the Tudors.

II. GREEK SCHOLARS AND FAMOUS PAINTERS

1. The year 1453 is a most important date to remember. What happened in that year? In what way did Italy benefit from this event?

2. The name of Leonardo da Vinci will ever be remembered. Why?

3. Write a few lines about each of the following: Erasmus, Colet, and Hans Holbein.

III. SIR THOMAS MORE

1. (a) More wrote a book about a country which he named Utopia. What did he describe in this book, and for what reason did he write it?
- (b) What differences did the change from growing corn to keeping sheep make in village life in the Tudor Period?
- (c) Which king declared himself to be head of the Church of England.

IV. CHANGES IN THE CHURCH

1. (a) Name some of the things about which the Protestants and Roman Catholics disagreed.
- (b) What do you remember about William Tyndale?
- (c) What happened to many of the monasteries during the reign of Henry VIII?
2. (a) In the reign of Edward VI a service book was introduced into the Church of England. What was the name of this book, and who wrote some of its contents?
- (b) What differences were there between the reigns of Edward VI and Mary?

V. FAMOUS EXPLORERS

1. (a) What articles did the European merchants buy from India and the East Indies?
- (b) What began to make it increasingly difficult for overland trade between Europe and India to continue?
2. (a) Why was the Cape of Good Hope so named?
- (b) Who was the first European to discover a sea route to India, and what was his route?
3. (a) If you studied the map showing the routes of the great explorers, you noticed that the *West* Indies are situated far away from the *East* Indies and India. Why were they called the *West* Indies?
- (b) What part of the globe is known as "The New World", and who discovered it? Who sailed from Bristol in 1497 and landed in Newfoundland?
4. Write a short story for a book or film entitled: "The First Voyage Round the World."

VI. MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

Mary Queen of Scots led a very troubled life. Give an account of some of the events in her life.

VII. DRAKE AND RALEIGH AND SHAKESPEARE

1. (a) Who was King of Spain in Elizabeth's reign? What caused him to hate England?

(b) Who was the first Englishman to sail round the world? Mention two episodes in the life of Raleigh and two in the life of Shakespeare.

(c) Imagine that you had heard one of the sailors of the Armada relating his adventures upon his return. Write out his tale.

The Stewarts.

VIII. A SCOTTISH KING COMES TO ENGLAND

1. (a) How did it happen that James VI was the same person as James I?

(b) In what way is 5th November connected with English history?

(c) Who were the Puritans? What did they desire, and why did the king oppose their wishes?

IX. THE REIGN OF CHARLES I (1)

1. Name some of the things done by Charles I in ruling the country which are not done now. Who was the chief minister during the early years of the reign of Charles I?

2. What have you read about the man named Wentworth?

X. THE REIGN OF CHARLES I (2)

1. Who was "King Pym", and why was he called by this name? Tell the story of the king's attempt to arrest five members of Parliament.

2. Cavaliers and Roundheads.—On which side were the following: John Hampden, Charles I, John Pym, Fairfax, Prince Rupert, Oliver Cromwell? Which side was victorious in this civil war?

XI. THE RULE OF OLIVER CROMWELL

1. Charles I was tried and executed. Give the reasons which you think caused the court to pronounce him guilty.
2. (a) For how many years was England ruled without a king?
(b) What attitude did Cromwell adopt in ruling the country?
3. In 1651 an important law called the Navigation Act was passed. What did this act say, and how did it affect the Dutch trade?

XII. THE YEAR OF WONDERS

1. (a) If you saw a copy of the famous *Diary* by Pepys, what would you expect to read in it, and in whose reign was it written?
(b) "1665—A Walk in London." Write a few sentences upon this subject.
2. (a) Give a description of the Great Fire of London. Who was king when this happened?
(b) On the tomb of Sir Christopher Wren in St. Paul's Cathedral you would read something to this effect: "If you want a monument, look around you." What does this mean?
3. (a) What name was given to those people who would not "conform" to the Church of England?
(b) Who wrote *The Pilgrim's Progress*, and what is related in the story?

XIII. THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

1. (a) Give as many illustrations as you can to show that James II was not a popular monarch with his people.
(b) Why were the Seven Bishops brought to trial, and what was the verdict of the jury?
2. In many history books you will read that William *and* Mary followed James II as ruler of this country. Why are both names mentioned?
3. What famous English general lived in the reign of Anne? Against whom did he win a magnificent victory, and where did the battle take place?

The Hanoverians.

XIV. THE JACOBITES

1. (a) Who were the Jacobites? Why were they called by that name?

(b) What two people in history were known as the Old and Young Pretenders? Why were they called Pretenders? Write a few sentences about "The Fifteen" and "The Forty-five".

XV. THE COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (1)

1. (a) By what name are the natives of North America known?

(b) Which part of North America has long been famous for its tobacco? Who introduced tobacco into England?

(c) To hear the ship *Mayflower* mentioned reminds us of its famous journey. Tell the story of its voyage.

(d) Each of these places was so named for a particular reason: New England, Pennsylvania, Louisiana. State the reason in each case.

2. (a) Who made the first lightning conductor?

(b) What was the aim of the French colonists in North America, and how did the English endeavour to upset their plans?

XVI. THE COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (2)

1. (a) Name the statesman and the soldier who made Canada a part of the British Empire.

(b) To the *Heights of Abraham* by the zigzag path—what a thrilling evening climb this must have been! Describe it.

2. (a) What happened at the *Boston tea-party* and what led up to this event?

(b) At the close of the war between the Mother Country and her American Colonies, the thirteen colonies became an independent republic—under what name? Who was its first president?

XVII. TWO ADVENTURERS

1. Two famous Englishmen will ever be remembered for adding India to the British Empire. Who were they? What happened at the *Black Hole of Calcutta*?

2. The voyages of Captain Cook are full of interest. Read about them in a book from your library. With what part of the world is his name chiefly associated?

XVIII. THE WAR WITH NAPOLEON

1. (a) What natural protection had Britain, which prevented Napoleon conquering this country?

(b) Who proved himself to be Napoleon's greatest enemy at sea? Write what you remember about him.

XIX. NEW INVENTIONS

1. (a) What was used to drive the machinery in mills before steam was used?

(b) A lengthy journey in the early years of George III's reign was a tedious and often a dangerous undertaking. Describe such a journey.

(c) What is the difference between spinning and weaving?

2. (a) What name is given to the process of turning iron ore into iron?

(b) Whose name will always be remembered for his work in connexion with the driving of engines by steam?

3. Describe the earliest steam-boats, and indicate how they differed from the majestic ocean liners of to-day.

4. Whose name will ever be linked with the earliest developments in railways?

XX. MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT

1. (a) Name the two Houses of Parliament.

(b) What is the difference between a *general election* and a *bye-election*?

(c) Which members of the House of Commons favoured the new law with regard to elections? Why did the House of Lords pass the new law although the majority of its members had voted against it?

XXI. DISTRESS IN THE COUNTRY

1. In this chapter you have learnt about two great friends of poor children. Who were they? In what way did they protect the children?

2. (a) What is meant by the *Hungry Forties*, and what caused the distress?

(b) Why are policemen sometimes called "Bobbies"?

(c) Instead of Whigs and Tories, what names were now given to the two parties in the House of Commons? Was it the Whigs or the Tories who desired the repeal of the Corn Laws?

XXII. SLAVERY AND ABRAHAM LINCOLN

1. (a) If you can obtain a copy of Mrs. Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, read it. What is meant by slavery?

(b) What caused the civil war between the northern and southern states of America?

(c) White House is the official residence of the U.S. president. *From Log Cabin to White House* is another book you should try to read. Whom do you think the story is about, and why?

XXIII. MORE INVENTIONS

It is not so many years ago that Queen Victoria reigned, yet great changes have taken place since she became queen. Relate as many of these improvements as you can remember from this chapter.

Arrange the following in time order:

A. Shakespeare, Abraham Lincoln, Caxton, Bunyan.

B. Black Hole of Calcutta, Waterloo, Armada, Trafalgar.

C. Captain Cook, Columbus, Drake, *The Mayflower*.

D. Motor-car, railway, aeroplane, stage coach.

1700—

Anne 1702-1714

George I. 1714 -1727

1725—

George II 1727 -1760

1750—

Capture of Quebec 1759
George III 1760 -1820
Captain Cook's first Voyage
U.S.A. formed 1776

1775—

First Balloon ascent 1783

1800—

Charlotte Dundas launched 1802

Battle of Waterloo 1815

George IV 1820 -1830

1805—



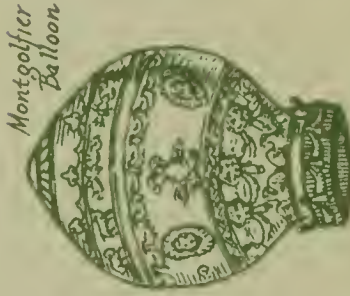
Coach



Sedan



Warship



Montgolfier
Balloon



Manchester & Liverpool Railway opened 1830
William IV 1830-1837
Victoria 1837-1901
Hungry Forties

1850



Locomotive 1840

Lincoln elected President of U.S.A
1860

Telephone invented 1876

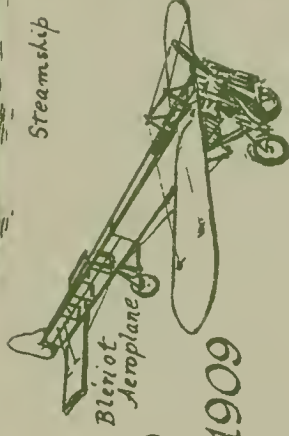
1875



Steamship

1900

Edward VII 1901-1910
First Channel Flight 1909
George V 1910

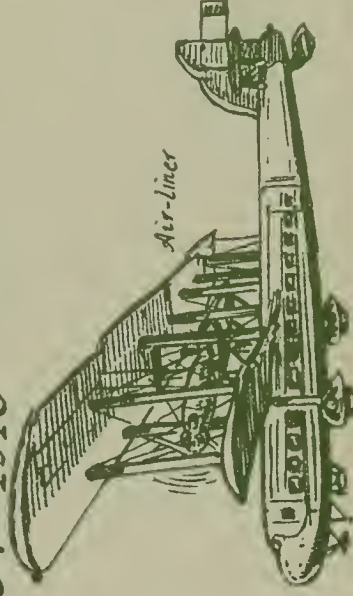


Bleriot
Aeroplane



Motor
Car 1896

1925



Air-liner



Electric Train

